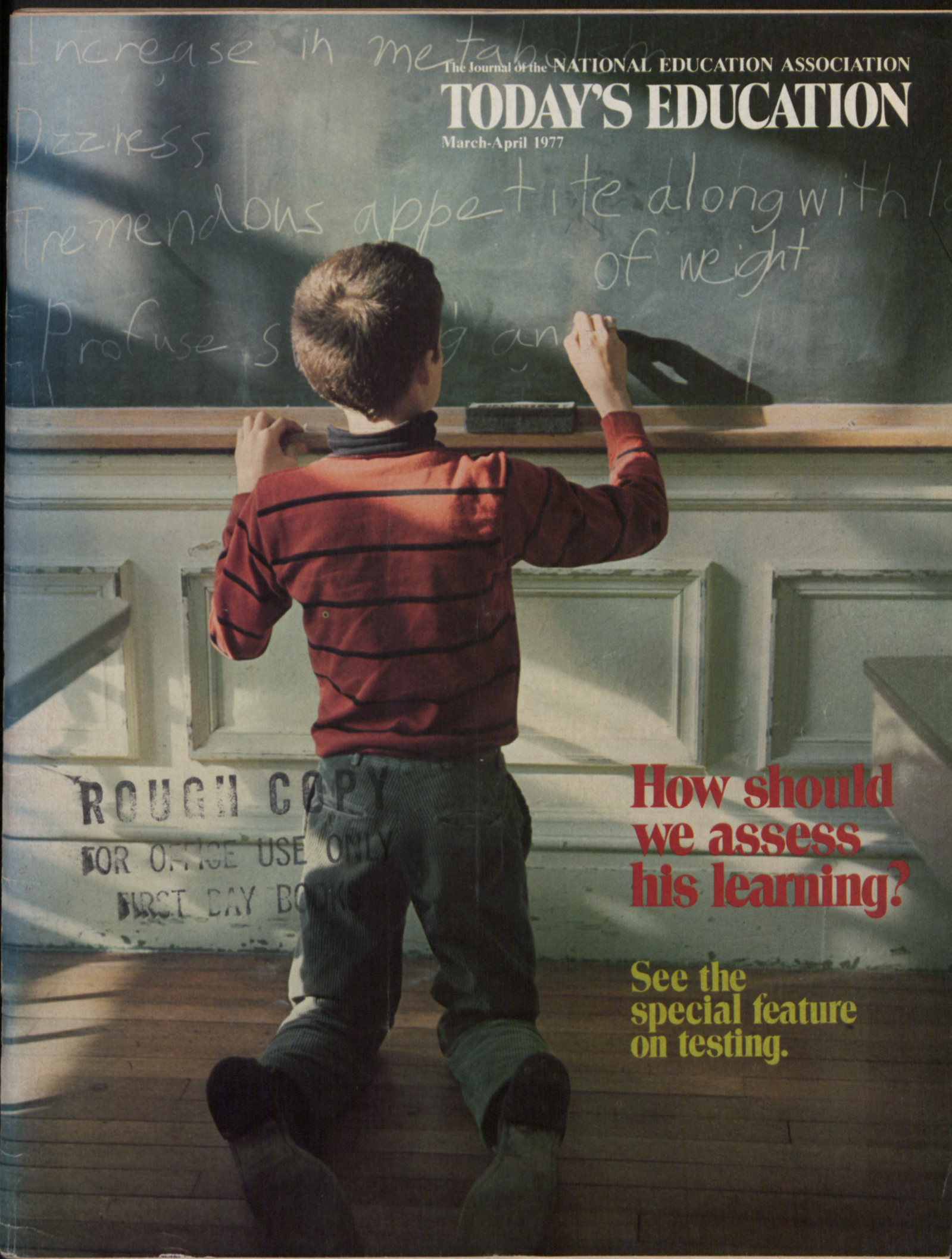


The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

TODAY'S EDUCATION

March-April 1977



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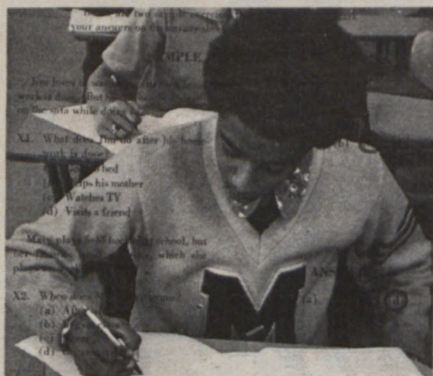
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IN THIS ISSUE



How should we assess Johnny's learning? What's wrong with standardized testing? What are some alternatives to standardized tests?

Some answers to these and related questions appear in the special feature on testing, which is announced on this month's cover.

The 19-page feature argues that "if the American schools are to respond effectively to agreed-on goals and objectives, more and better evaluation procedures will be required. But one thing is certain: *Large-scale mass-administered standardized testing programs will not accomplish this mission.*"

After citing and giving examples of the many weaknesses of standardized tests, the feature describes alternatives to standardized tests: anecdotal records, oral presentations by students, contracts with students, student self- and peer evaluation, parent-teacher conferences, individual diagnostic tests, teacher-made tests, school letter grades, and open admissions.

What can teachers do about the "dismal science" of standardized testing? The feature urges teachers individually and collectively to "influence the testing industry, state education departments, and other groups to reallocate their large resources to research, develop, field test, and disseminate a broad range of alternatives to standardized tests for evaluating student learning progress and to help teachers improve instruction."

Single copies of the feature are available free from the NEA-IPD as long as the supply lasts. Enclose a stamped (24 cents), self-addressed, legal-size envelope with your order.

Another highlight in this issue is the tragic story of teenage runaways—now estimated to be from 300,000 to 500,000 a year. Why do they run away? Where do they go? How do they survive? What about provisions and facilities for runaway children in various communities?



Perhaps most importantly this article also tells how teachers can identify potential runaways and what teachers can do about easing the potential runaway's problems. In the prevention of runaways and in their return to the classroom, "schools and teachers have a significant contribution to make."



A third highlight this month is an article concerned with the relationship between children and senior citizens. Believing that if children are to live fully each day of their lives, they must be able to recognize what is good about aging and to respect and love others who may be older than they, researchers at the University of Maryland interviewed children to find out how they felt about aging and the

elderly. They learned that children at all age levels had limited and stereotyped knowledge of old people—most of their attitudes toward old people and aging were inclined to be somewhat negative.

The article then points out that teachers can help improve children's attitudes toward aging and the elderly in two ways. First, they can examine the ways in which they and the school are influencing those attitudes and then improve their practices. Second, they can examine teaching materials to see that they do not present the elderly as a stereotyped group.

A smorgasbord of other articles in this issue offer interesting and helpful fare for every teacher at every school level.

Authors include such nationally known figures as Norman Cousins, editor of *Saturday Review*, commenting on the perennial social problem of the responsibility of the press, and Harry Broudy, educational philosopher and statesman, calling for a new voice for the public schools if they are to go beyond survival—"and even survival cannot be taken for granted."

Dr. Broudy says that education needs to probe its concerns and "to speak with a voice that the public and school people can believe."

Authors also include outstanding teachers at all levels like Marilyn Duff of California and Ross Taylor of Minnesota, who tell of their classroom-tested ideas about teaching high school reading and elementary and secondary basic math.

Other articles deal with the growing problem of the battered teacher, archeological expeditions that teachers can take part in, and teacher centers for in-service education.

All this and some 13 continuing features too, as listed on page 3!

So how do you assess this issue of *Today's Education*? We hope you don't apply a standardized test to it. We hope you do assess it personally—as being of interest and value to you as a teacher. Please let us hear from you so that your assessment can lead to our improvement—to an even better *Today's Education* next fall. We'll appreciate your help.

—WAG.

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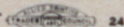
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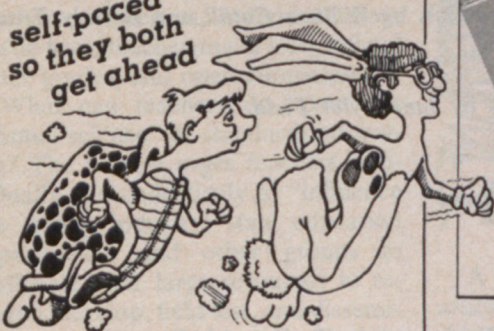
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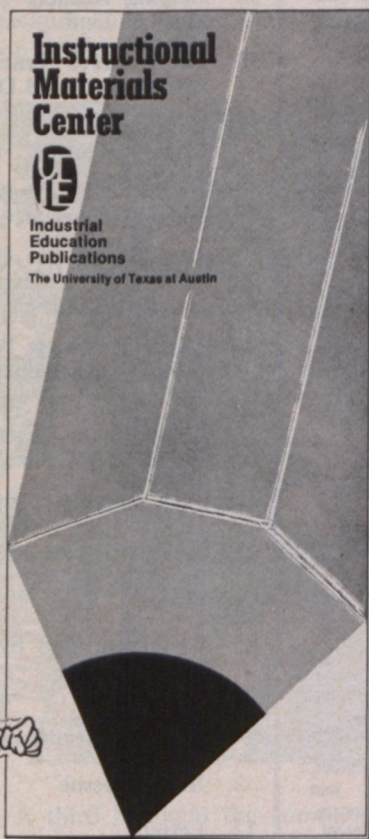
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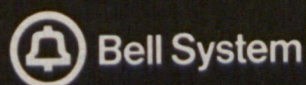
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EDITORIAL

One-Third Federal Funding

By JOHN RYOR

President, NEA.

One-third federal funding for education is an idea whose time is long overdue. It is incredible that the federal government provides less than 9 percent of the funding for the nation's public schools. Last June the NEA Representative Assembly earmarked \$950,000 for our current effort aimed at turning things around in the school-financing sphere. Federal neglect of education must, and will, end.

School financing is a serious problem throughout the land; in many communities it assumes crisis proportions. Some schools in Oregon and Ohio have actually had to close for days or weeks. In many other states, the shortage of funds has spawned a callous disregard for teachers and school programs. Trapped between mounting costs and lagging revenue, systems have retrenched by shortening the school day or extending vacations. Some big-city systems have dropped hundreds of teaching positions. More than 60,000 of our colleagues received pink slips this past year, a large portion for no reason other than insufficient funds. Even though many RIF notices were later rescinded, thousands of teachers remained unemployed. These cases represent catastrophe; in the aggregate, they spell dramatic reduction in the quality of school programs.

Some districts have cut staff in areas such as art, music, and health services from the rolls. Others have pared allowances for teacher substitute pay, teacher aides, and school building maintenance.

What's the solution? Certainly not the local property tax, which is already carrying too great a burden. "Taxpayer Revolt" has become headline copy in some communities.

Some state governments can offer only limited additional help. In 1975-76, more than 48 percent of public school revenue came from local sources, and the states contributed 44 percent. In 11 states, the local share was 58 percent or more, with a high of nearly 85 percent. Ten other states had state contributions of 58 percent or more, with a top of 85 percent, also. The big answer to inadequate financing cannot be found at the local-state levels where, on the average, 92¢ of the school dollar is already being provided.

Inadequacy of school funding is teamed with *inequity*. According to the President's Commission on School Finance, the high and low ranges of spending per pupil in 1969-70 varied more than 400 percent in each of nine states. A spate of legal actions across the nation has assaulted the traditional heavy reliance on local property taxes to support the schools. Courts have noted that local property-tax financing discriminates invidiously against the poor. The quality of a child's education depends on the wealth of his or her parents and neighbors rather than on

the wealth of the whole state.

Restructuring the tax systems *within* states is not enough, though. The states are faced with the dilemma of raising all districts to the spending level of the highest districts—a solution they cannot afford—or lowering spending to a level that existing revenue can support—thus dragging down the better schools. This kind of parity is unacceptable in an affluent nation with high and rising educational expectations. Americans want equality of high quality—not equality of mediocrity. We cannot afford less.

The solution requires a bold financial commitment at the national level. Additional billions of dollars are necessary just to maintain the pace of improvement in our public schools that we experienced a decade ago—indeed, huge sums are needed just to stand still. The situation demands one-third federal financing instead of the present meager one-fourteenth. Only the federal government with its broad tax base and efficient collection procedures can erase the inequities among the states, where current expenditures per pupil range from \$969 to \$2,179. Since our whole nation is a beneficiary of our education system, this increased responsibility would not be misplaced.

Accomplishing this calls for a drastic reordering of national priorities. Is it defensible that Americans spend more on comic books than on textbooks? We, as a society, have repeatedly said we consider the education of our children of top importance; we must now make a national commitment of a magnitude that will confirm our words. We must put our money where our good intentions have been.

We must insist that everyone pay a fair share in supporting our schools and other public institutions and services. Can we condone the fact that in a recent year more than 400 Americans with incomes over \$100,000 paid no federal income taxes?

We must protest when the taxpayers' money is dissipated on questionable projects. Can we justify federal expenditures of a quarter million dollars to study passionate love and almost one-half million to determine under what conditions rats, monkeys, and humans bite and clench their jaws?

The united profession must demand political accountability of our representatives on Capitol Hill and in the White House. The federal government must begin picking up its fair share of the tab for preserving and improving the public schools. Fortunately, we can face the future with reserved optimism, for the Carter Administration has endorsed increased federal funding for education. NEA is now stepping up its drive to make this long-sought goal come true. Perhaps America is on its way to straightening out its national priorities. □

TRENDS

Ohio Teachers Get State Grants

Ohio teachers and other educators can now get as much as \$2,000 to carry out good new ideas, through the state department of education's Teacher Grant Program. The minigrant funds, which come from ESEA Title IV, can be used to buy equipment and materials, contract services, or pay substitutes. Ohio Education Association representatives will be helping evaluate proposals for the minigrants.

Similar minigrant programs have been started in several other states, among them Alaska, Colorado, Maine, Montana, Nevada, and Vermont.

Math Teachers Plan Metric Week

To prepare students to live in a metric world—and help their parents, too—the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics is designating May 9 to 13 National Metric Week. Last year's most successful activities included estimation contests, parent or community workshops, metric recipe distribution, school announcements made in metric terms, and a metric field day.

For a free single copy of "Community Awareness Activities for National Metric Week," write the Council at 1906 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091.

College Graduates' Income Maintains a Lead

In 1975, families whose heads had at least four years of college had the highest median incomes (nearly \$22,000) of any education group and, compared to 1974, the least loss in real income (down just over 2 percent) and the greatest income gain in current dollars (up 7 percent), according to the Census Bureau. Median income for all families was \$13,720.

The same year, 2.5 million more people slipped below the poverty level, bringing the total to 25.9 million—almost 1 person in 8.

New Federal Office Serves Asians and Pacific Americans

An Office of Asian and Pacific American Concerns has been set up

in the U.S. Office of Education. According to USOE, 207,600 Asian or Pacific American children attend U.S. elementary and secondary schools, 50,000 attend colleges and universities. The new office is to check on equality of opportunity, establish communication with Asian and Pacific American communities, and give them a chance to help develop educational policies and programs.

USOE already has offices that work on the special concerns of Afro-Americans, the Spanish-speaking, Indians, and women.

School Districts Help Students Find Jobs

Nearly half the districts that include grades 11 and 12 provide job placement programs, according to the National Center for Education Statistics, and a majority of the programs serve graduates and dropouts as well as students in school. Usually the programs provide referrals and listings and also teach ways to look for a job.

The centers are most common among large school systems; some are run in cooperation with the local employment service. About half of them report serving at least 30 percent of their system's students.

Government Shares Cost of Free Books for Kids

Through a contract with Reading Is Fundamental (RIF), Inc., the Office of Education will share with local nonprofit groups—half and half—the cost of books the groups will give away or loan to children. Local groups define their own programs, meeting standards set by RIF. RIF already has more than 400 projects in 47 states; it has given away more than 5 million books since 1966.

For information about setting up a local project, write to Reading Is Fundamental, Inc., L'Enfant 2500, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC 20560.

Pregnant Teachers Still Get Sick Leave

Although the Supreme Court says employers in general aren't required to give pregnant employees disability benefits, the ruling won't affect teachers. So say spokespersons for HEW's Office for Civil Rights, agreeing with

NEA's initial interpretation of the Court's recent decision on this question.

According to the HEW officials, any school district that gets federal money must still comply with the regulations of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, which forbid discrimination on the basis of sex. They note that those regulations—unlike the guidelines involved in the Court decision—were enacted by Congress and signed by the President.

Education Enrollments Remain Stable

Enrollment in undergraduate education programs decreased only 0.2 percent in 1976, according to a survey conducted by George Peabody College for Teachers. Graduate enrollments dropped 1.2 percent. The survey results are based on figures from 588 of the colleges and universities that belong to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

Average education enrollments fell more at public than at private institutions and in the Northeast more than in other regions of the country.

Teachers in Spain Now Meet Freely

The Spanish Federation of Workers in Education (FETE) has emerged from 40 years of survival underground and among exiles. Under Franco, only private school teachers and administrators were legally unionized; public employees were not allowed to form unions.

Among FETE's present goals are to secure three things: a role in professional development, matching of educational finances with goals, and coordination among educational agencies.

What Makes Integration Work?

Some practices that improve race relations among students are—using multicultural materials, teaching minority groups' history and culture, holding classroom discussions of race, and assigning Black and White students to work together and to play together in organized activities. So says a study conducted for the U.S. Office of Education.

The *Handbook for Integrated Schooling* applies the findings of the study. For a free copy, write to Herman R. Goldberg, Equal Educational

TRENDS (Continued)

Opportunities Program, U.S. Office of Education, Room 2011, Washington, DC 20202.

South Australians Open First Teacher Center

By the time it officially opened, the Salisbury Education Centre—the first teacher center in South Australia—was already serving 300 teachers a week. Teachers come to the Centre to make instructional aids, attend workshops, hold in-service conferences, develop curriculum, use the idea center for materials and equipment, or meet with one another or other groups. Any teacher at the 120 schools affiliated with the Centre can use its facilities; so can community members, on application.

(See the articles on teacher centers beginning on p. 74.)

Food Day Celebrates Good Eating

April 21 is Food Day. Food and health, hunger in the United States and abroad, and control of the food supply will be the subject of discussions and activities nationwide. Handing out recipes, demonstrating cooking methods, and eating nutritious food; gardening, canning, and getting food to the hungry are some common Food Day activities.

For more ideas, write the Center for Science in the Public Interest, 1757 S Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20009.

Taft Institutes Bring Politicians to Political Science

This summer, teachers, principals, and administrators will have a chance to study the U.S. political system with practicing politicians in 35 seminars at universities throughout the country. The seminars, sponsored by the Robert A. Taft Institute of Government, offer academic credit. Most are two to six weeks long.

For information and applications, write the Institute at 420 Lexington Avenue, New York City 10017.

U.S. Ranks High in Infant Deaths, Low in Longevity

In 1974, 15 countries recorded lower infant mortality rates than the

United States, and 19 countries showed a longer average life expectancy at birth, reports the Population Reference Bureau, citing federal and United Nations statistics. Some reasons for the nation's relatively poor standing are inadequate health care for the poor and nonwhite combined with national life-styles associated with chronic diseases and accidents, according to the Bureau, which recommends better diet and exercise along with less smoking and drinking.

On Campus and Off, Women's Earnings Fall Further Behind

In higher education faculties, the gap between men's and women's salaries continues to grow: In 1975-76, men's salaries were 22 percent higher than women's. In all occupations during the past 20 years, the gap between women's earnings and men's when both work full time and year-round has nearly doubled, according to the U.S. Department of Labor. Measured in constant dollars to take inflation into account, the gap grew from \$1,911 in 1955 to \$3,433 in 1974, when men's earnings were 75 percent higher than women's.

Bilingual Education Network Grows

A federally funded nationwide network to improve bilingual education has now grown to include 15 training centers for teachers and 14 centers that develop materials for schools or for teacher education. Most centers are operated by school districts or universities.

Three additional centers will evaluate the materials developed and distribute the good ones. The program, administered by the U.S. Office of Education's Office of Bilingual Education, works with more than 18 languages.

Who's on the School Board?

Most school boards have five or seven members, according to the latest survey by the National School Boards Association, and 95 percent of board members are elected. A fourth of school boards are all-male. Three-fourths of all school boards have used citizens' advisory committees in the past two years.

The average board member is a 47-year-old college graduate and has been

on the board for six years. Of every eight board members, one is a housewife—the largest single occupation represented. Most of the rest are farmers, managers, educators, executives, business owners or bankers, and skilled workers. More than 1 in 8 members are or have been public school teachers.

Graduates Evaluate College Education as Preparation for Work

Skills in communicating, administration, interpersonal relations, and mathematics are desirable for people in almost any kind of occupation, say college graduates surveyed for a study published by the College Placement Council and cosponsored by the National Institute of Education. Most of the 4,100 respondents found their college educations either very or somewhat useful in their work, but more useful in providing general knowledge and credentials than in training them to exercise skills, leadership, or clear thinking—and of little use in preparing them to choose goals.

School Statistics Estimates Show Slight Change

The estimated total number of U.S. classroom teachers in the fall of 1976 was 2,187,059—770 lower than in fall 1975, according to *Estimates of School Statistics, 1976-77*, by NEA Research. Average number of pupils per teacher reached a record low of 20.3, and the number of instructional positions dropped by 0.1 per cent.

Estimated average expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance is \$1,564; average annual salary of classroom teachers, \$13,297. Both expenditures and salaries are more than twice as high in some states as in others.

Severe Winter Closes Schools

As we go to press, schools in many parts of the country have been closed because of the unusual cold and snowfall and the fuel shortage. States in the Northeast and Midwest—notably Pennsylvania and Ohio—have been particularly hard hit, and some schools were closed for several weeks during the winter months.

For some Association responses to the situation, see the March issue of the *NEA Reporter*.

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LETTERS

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.

Creativity or Communication?

I agree with many of Mr. Lloyd-Jones's ideas ("Is There a Crisis in Writing Skills?" November-December), but with several reservations. A teacher who doesn't grade students' papers isn't familiar enough with their work to help them improve. Furthermore, mechanics may be secondary to ideas, but mechanical errors in a paper can keep readers from understanding the ideas it contains. Ignoring mechanics will lead to slow, certain deterioration of the language. The real crisis in writing will come when creativity of ideas is considered more important than understandable communication of ideas.

—Joseph T. Rector, *English teacher, Doyle High School, Knoxville, Tennessee.*

The Two Brains: Fact or Fancy?

The recent excitement about the relationship of cerebral hemisphericity to educational methods ("Right-Brained Kids in Left-Brained Schools," November-December) has no basis of any kind, let alone a scientific basis. Clearly, education should accommodate different styles of learning among individuals and should encourage varied perceptual modes in everyone. Psychologists have found that the more kinds of sensory experience are used to present a subject, the more children know about that subject.

However, information based on studies of adults in whom the left and right hemispheres of the brain have been surgically severed cannot indicate how whole brains function in normal adults, and certainly not in children. In fact, evidence indicates that the two halves of the intact brain

work together and cannot, for example, perform separate spatial and linear tasks at the same time. Speech perception involves processes in both cerebral hemispheres. In very young children, speech functions can shift to the right side of the brain if the left is damaged.

In short, variety in educational modes is desirable. It need not, however, be justified on the grounds of scientific inquiries which, although interesting and perhaps of ultimate relevance to education, currently have no theoretical or practical relationship to the classroom. Summoning such ambiguous scientific information further threatens the credibility of the teaching profession.

—Ruth Straus Gainer, *visual arts specialist, Montgomery County (Maryland) Public Schools, and Harold Gainer, head, Section on Functional Neurochemistry, Behavioral Biology Branch, National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, Bethesda, Maryland.*

Lessons Learned: The Role of Sex in History

Ms. Needham ("Lessons Learned," November-December) is right: sex isn't funny. We will never be able to really teach junior high students about the past while we pretend that no one in history had sex, or even a sex. Sex is very important to students that age, and they're quick to sense a lie.

Sex may be the most important single element of human events and relations in history, but like politics and religion, it's a forbidden subject in the classroom. When you can't discuss sex, politics, or religion, you can't discuss anything of real human significance.

—Tommy R. Owen, *history and government teacher, Marshfield (Missouri) High School.*

Standing on Chairs

The picture on page 46 of the November-December issue shows a safety violation (I hope I'm not the only one who noticed). Students are standing on improperly placed chairs: The backs of the chairs should be to the wall or to one side. The picture exemplifies a need for a safety refresher.

Who teaches safety to the teacher who is ignorant of good safety mea-

sures? Must we wait for an accident?

—Regina V. Milliken, *school nurse, Essex County Vocational and Technical High School, Bloomfield, New Jersey.*

Where the Jobs Are

We've begun analyzing returns from questionnaires we sent to 10,000 school districts about what personnel they plan to hire in 1977. Our preliminary analysis indicates that at least 20,000 positions will be available. A significant number of administrators said they wanted to interview as many applicants as possible in order to get the best-qualified teachers.

Of the responding districts: A third want more science applicants, especially at the secondary level—in the Central Plains States most of all. A third want applicants in industrial or vocational education—the need is especially great in the Midwest and Northern Plains. Nearly a third want math or math/science applicants, especially in the South Central and Southern Atlantic States.

Special education applicants are in demand in a fourth of the responding districts nationwide (but not in New York and Pennsylvania). Bilingual teachers also are in great demand—in California and Texas more than elsewhere. Vacancies will be most numerous in elementary education, but desire for elementary applicants, as for those in English and social studies, is least common.

In general, the need for applicants is slightest along the Middle and Northern Atlantic Coast, around the Great Lakes, along the Mississippi, and in the Northwest.

For more on this and on a follow-up survey, send a self-addressed, stamped, legal-size envelope to Teacher Information Exchange, Box 306, Bainbridge Island, WA 98110.

—Tom Reaney, *director, Teacher Information Exchange.*

Federal Forum for Educators

Presidential Classroom will be offering two-week Federal Forums for educators, executives, and others this June and July. Forum participants will meet elected officials, Supreme Court Justices, ambassadors, civil servants, and reporters in seminars, panel discussions, and on-site briefings. The

LETTERS

(Continued)

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For more information, please write me at P.O. Box 19084, Washington, DC 20036.

—Diana Furr, *special assistant, A Presidential Classroom for Young Americans.*

Sex and Humor in the Classroom (Cont'd.)

In response to Mr. von Hoorn's letter ("Sex and Humor in the Classroom," January-February), I've done some very scientific research on "girl" teachers' humor. First, I asked my own children whether boy teachers or girl teachers had the better sense of humor. Disregarding my son's answer as biased, the consensus was that although boy teachers often think themselves very funny, only the class brownies laugh at their corny jokes.

Next, I observed the times I made my sixth graders laugh: uproariously when I lifted the class gerbil 10 inches off the table with his/her teeth securely anchored in my finger; even harder when I acted out Caesar's death scene from Shakespeare.

Finally, in the teachers' lounge we girls laugh exactly 36.3 percent more than the boys, and we even have to explain some of the jokes to them. Of course, one of our boys is the principal, and everyone knows what a sense of humor they have.

Remember, Mr. von Hoorn, for every Mr. Kotter there is a Mr. Woodman.

—Georgianne Kayser, *sixth grade teacher, Gladiola Elementary School, Wyoming, Michigan.*

... We "just ain't got it"? What's the "it" we're supposed to get—rapport with our students or an award for Entertainer of the Year?...

—Vicki H. Sandstrom, *counselor, Sawdon Ninth Grade, Grand Ledge, Michigan.*

... To the female teachers at Tor-

rington High: Mr. von Hoorn's quips at lunch ("Did you hear the one about the dumb broad who...?") must keep you rolling. Lunch periods are notoriously short, but cheer up, at least you get a turkey every day. ...

—Joreen Piotrowski, *science teacher, Newman Junior High School, Needham, Massachusetts.*

"Parent Crunch" via NEA Satellite

I was glad to see "The Parent Crunch" (January-February) appear in *Today's Education*. Readers might be interested to know that the Agency for Instructional Television videotape has been televised in Appalachia and Alaska via satellite. The videotape opened discussion of teacher-parent communications on the first of NEA's Appalaska Intercom programs linking teachers in Appalachia and Alaska.

—Margaret Balint, *coordinating teacher, ESEA Title I, La Follette, Tennessee.*

New Perspective on Discipline

To my surprise and relief, Jesse Jackson ("Discipline: Jesse Jackson Speaks Out," January-February) did not repeat the worthy but timeworn

solutions to the discipline problem inside the classroom. Instead, he showed an understanding of the social situation that is causing disruptive behavior. I suddenly realized that until we learn to "not negate the home but affirm it," we will go on being unable to help the Cedric Robinsons in our classes.

I salute Jesse Jackson's intelligent and perceptive analysis.

—David L. Smith, *art teacher, Fairmont West High School, Kettering, Ohio.*

Reading Is for Everyone

People of all ages who cannot see or cannot hold conventional printed matter can use the Library of Congress's free collection of braille and talking books and magazines; they can also borrow the necessary equipment.

If any of your students need this service, write the Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped, Library of Congress, Washington, DC 20542.

—Frank Kurt Cylke, *chief, Division for the Blind and Physically Handicapped.*

Today's Education Reprints

Reprints of the following popular *Today's Education* articles are now available:

- "Behavioral Objectives," Ralph Tyler interviewed by June and Harold Shane. (Z-0938-X-OF)

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- "Foreign Languages—Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow" by Mary H. Jackson. (Z-0942-8-OF)

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RESEARCH CLUES

By **JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD**

Assistant Director, Center
for Social Organization of Schools
Johns Hopkins University,
Baltimore, Maryland.

Findings like those reported here have to be assessed carefully. What works in one situation may not in another. A single study seldom settles an issue or determines "the truth" once and for all. Knowledge accumulates slowly.

But new ideas deserve our consideration and often repay it. Moreover, we may sometimes be struck as much by the audacity and ambition of a researcher as by his or her results. If a study opens up a new field of speculation for us, that may be contribution enough.

Are children's friendship patterns different in open and traditional classrooms?

Yes, according to this study of 51 elementary and junior high school classrooms. The classrooms were comparable in size, but 12 were open, 25 were semi-open, and 14 were traditional. The study also collected longitudinal data from nine other fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classes.

The specific findings were as follows:

- Friendship choices were more equally distributed in the open classrooms—there were fewer social isolates and fewer "stars."
- In the open classrooms, there were fewer groups of two or three in which friendship choices were not returned. Also, these groups stabilized more quickly in the open classrooms as students made new friendship choices.
- There were more pairs of students who chose each other in the traditional classrooms.
- The children in traditional classrooms gave and received more friendship choices—that is, on the average, they had more friends.

These findings raise numerous questions about how freedom of interaction

in classrooms influences friendship patterns. Teachers cannot assume that more classroom interaction (open classrooms) will promote more and stronger friendships.

See Maureen Hallinan. "Friendship Patterns in Open and Traditional Classrooms." *Sociology of Education* 49: 254-65; October 1976.

Why can't Johnny and Jane write?

They can't write because they don't write. This short article is not a research study; it presents 13 brief examples of situations in which children used to write but no longer need to. For example, Johnny now calls long distance instead of writing to thank his grandmother for the birthday present; Jane now takes multiple-choice tests in social studies rather than writing essays. The article presents its answer—students are doing less writing both in school and out—with convincing logic.

See Patricia Fox. "Why Johnny Can't and the Cat in the Hat." *English Journal*, 38-39; November 1976.

What is the status of simulation games in the classroom?

Simulation games have been available for about 10 years, but their use in classrooms has been minimal and is likely to remain so, according to the author. (Simulation games require the student to participate in some aspect of an environment, in contrast to other instructional games, which are used to provide practice in basic skills.)

The author cites the following reasons for the nonflowering of the simulation game movement:

- Research on the results of playing simulation games has been inconclusive.
- The games are criticized as being gross simplifications of reality.
- Teachers give many reasons for not using the games, such as the extra work involved and the loss of some control in the classroom.
- There aren't many really good games.
- The simulations get boring when used often.

- Publishers have real problems in marketing the games.

On the other hand, the one consistent finding in simulation-games research is that teachers and students who use them rate them as highly interesting and worthwhile experiences. Because of this and his own belief in the learning opportunities the games present, the author feels that simulation games will continue to be a part, if only a small part, of the collection of instructional options available to teachers.

See R. Garry Shirts. "Simulation Games: An Analysis of the Last Decade." *Programmed Learning and Educational Technology* 13: 3, 37-41; July 1976.

Should elementary school systems offer alternative programs?

Definitely, says the author of this discussion. Alternative programs should be available for elementary students on a districtwide basis, side-by-side in one building, or even through electives within a conventional program.

By providing alternatives, schools would accept greater individuality and diversity, would gain parental interest and support (because parents would have to get involved in helping their children choose an alternative), and would enable teachers to match their teaching with their educational philosophies. Moreover, schools would provide children with a more consistent learning environment (less subject to change from grade to grade and teacher to teacher) and would increase educational accountability because each school would focus on specific objectives.

In a way, some of the author's suggestions are being carried out—there is a growing mix of open and traditional schools in the elementary systems, some "fundamental" movements in the elementary area, and of course special education programs. But the author stresses that schools should stop trying to prove that one alternative is better than the others; the elementary school system should simply

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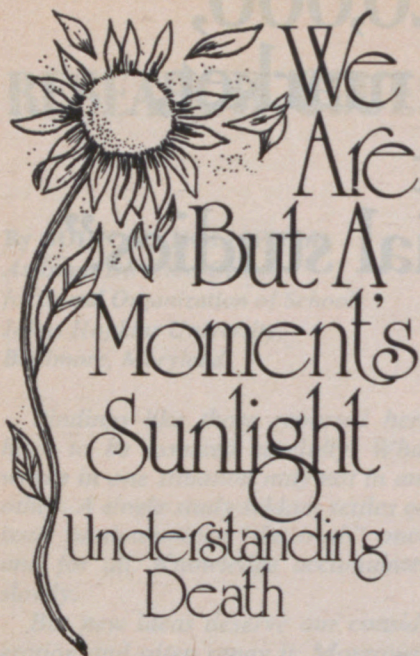
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RESEARCH CLUES (Continued)

offer as many alternatives as possible.

See John L. Tewksbury. "Alternative Programs in Public Elementary Schools." *Theory into Practice* 15: 2, 134-41; April 1976.

Would elementary school children rather be good athletes or good academics?

In this study of 802 boys and girls in fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, both boys and girls reported that they would rather get good grades than be good athletes. But when asked to choose the most popular students, boys chose athletes and girls chose student-athletes (girls who were good athletically and academically). And when asked to rank factors that made students popular (grades, sports, looks, and money), boys ranked sports first and grades second, while girls ranked grades first and sports second. (The schools that were studied did not have interscholastic sports, which generally intensify the popularity of the athletes.)

The authors' conclusion is that in elementary schools, athletic ability is already becoming a larger factor than academic ability in determining students' popularity.

See Hugh T. Buchanan, Joe Blankenbaker, and Doyce Cotten. "Academic and Athletic Ability as Popularity Factors in Elementary School Children." *Research Quarterly* 47: 3, 320-25; October 1976.

Are some children accident-prone?

It's not likely that some children are more accident-prone than others over an appreciable length of time, according to this study of 103 seventh grade boys. But children are more susceptible to accidents when they're under stress from changes in their lives, such as a death in the family, a change to a different school, or a change in the family's financial status. In this study, boys who reported undergoing stressful changes in their lives during the year preceding the study were more likely than others to have accidents during the next five months.

The authors hypothesize that acci-

dent-prone children may be preoccupied with the changes in their lives or may be acting out problems.

Teachers may look for stressful life changes to help explain the onslaught of accident-proneness in a formerly accident-free student. And, to stretch the findings of this study, a drop in a student's effort and achievement also might be the effect of current stresses.

See Eligio Padilla, Damaris Rohsenow, and Abraham Bergman. "Predicting Accident Frequency in Children." *Pediatrics* 58: 223-26; 1976.

What is the current outlook for team teaching?

There are many problems associated with team teaching, says this study of 469 teachers in the San Francisco Bay Area. Cooperative efforts among elementary school teachers need to persist, however, because of the growing complexity of teaching methods and the demands of open-space schools. The author identifies team teaching as one or all of the following: team planning of instruction, team evaluation of students, team coordination of discipline, and joint teaching.

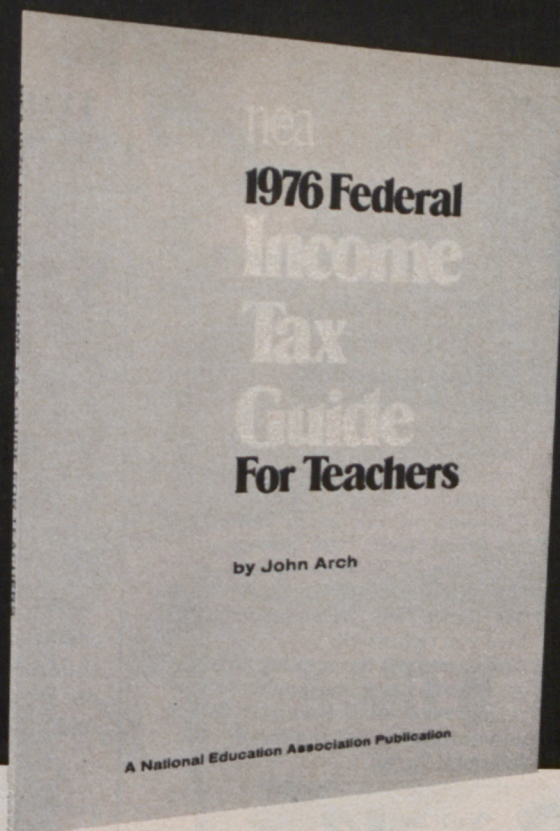
The problems identified are lack of policy development to guide team decisions, lack of team leadership, and lack of support from principals and administrators. The author points out that organizational support is necessary for stability and consistency in team teaching.

See Elizabeth G. Cohen. "Problems and Prospects of Teaming." *Educational Research Quarterly* 1: 2, 49-63; Summer 1976. □



"Nothing much, Dave. What's innovative with you?"

TODAY'S EDUCATION



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THE TEACHER AND THE LAW

The telephone rings.

NEA: May I help you?

Sylvia B.: My name is Sylvia B. I think I'm going to lose my job—I'm an English teacher. Can you help me?

NEA: We may be able to help. What happened?

Sylvia B.: I was evaluated. They're all against me, and I don't know how to stand up to them.

My supervisor came into my classroom yesterday morning. She observed one of my more difficult classes. Then, in the afternoon, I was called down to the principal's office. He and my supervisor told me off. I couldn't get a word in. Each kept telling me what was wrong with me—not just my teaching, but me, too. When one criticized me, the other said, "Yes, that's right" and offered proof of the criticism. It was all I could do to keep from crying. I was humiliated.

At the end of the meeting, the principal told me that he was going to recommend that I not be renewed for next year. I've been teaching for 13 years—five of them in this school. Teaching is my life. I've always tried to do my best and have never had a negative evaluation before. Just some minor things. Once they told me that I should volunteer for more activities.



"Why's the teacher going through with this? Aerodynamically, we'll never get off the ground!"

But this! Nonrenewed! And I never did anything wrong to begin with. You know, they said that I didn't act the way a teacher ought to act in the classroom. I don't even know what that means. And my supervisor said she sensed that my students were uncomfortable around me—after the supervisor had spent only one hour of observation in my room!

The principal blamed me for the students' low reading scores, and I've spent two summer vacations at reading workshops.

They can't do this to me.

There's a lot I could have said in my own defense. I could have had witnesses, too, if I'd known what was in store for me. But because they were so overbearing, I was too choked up to protest.

I'm going to lose my job. They won't even give me a hearing.

Can they do this to me? Will NEA help?

While Ms. B's case is fictitious, many teacher rights cases do begin with tears and anxious phone calls. It is humiliating to lose a job—even more so when basic rights are denied in the process. In Ms. B's case, the abridged right was that of due process. She was not given what NEA defines as fair treatment:

- A statement of prescribed and prohibited conduct and the penalties attached to violations.
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NEA DuShane Fund. Using \$1 of each member's dues, the Fund provides for counsel in litigation, payment of attorneys' fees, direct NEA participation as *amicus curiae* and party plaintiff, and subsistence financing. The DuShane Fund enforces members' due process rights. It also enforces many other teachers' rights, including academic freedom, equal protection of the laws, freedom of association, and privacy.

The following cases illustrate violations of teachers' rights. Can you identify with any of the violations described?

If you can, if you believe that any of your other rights have been violated, or if you have recently received a nonrenewal notice, do not panic. Do not resign. Do not admit any alleged wrongdoing. Instead, call your state association's teacher rights representative.

Violation 1: Denial of Religious Freedom. A Missouri board of trustees dismissed a sixth grade teacher one day after he had completed his 90-day probationary period. His troubles had begun at the beginning of the school year when he asked for about 11 days of leave to observe the holy days of the World Wide Church of God. After that, he alleged, his principal and superintendent had negative reactions toward him. Then a school board meeting was held that resulted in a notice of termination if he did not correct deficiencies in his professional conduct and methods. Later he received an evaluation justifying the board's charges.

Violation 2: Misrepresentation. A Maryland professor was nonrenewed after her fourth contract year. She had signed her third year's contract following notification from the college president that she would be renewed only if she waived her tenure rights. The president's letter implied that the waiver was just a correction of a contractual error made at the time of her original appointment.

Her fourth year's contract contained a notification date for termina-

A GOOD SECOND JOB CAN MAKE THEIR FIRST JOBS EASIER TO FIND.

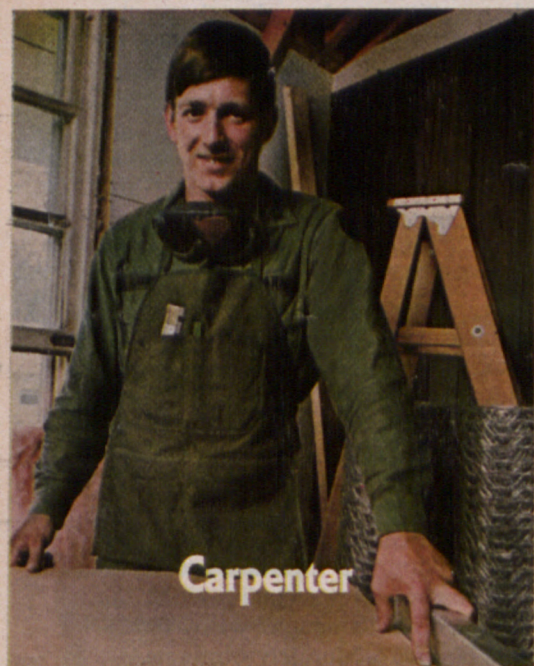
When a young person is fresh out of high school and looking for that important first job, it's pretty hard to be a qualified applicant for anything.

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Carpenter



Finance Specialist



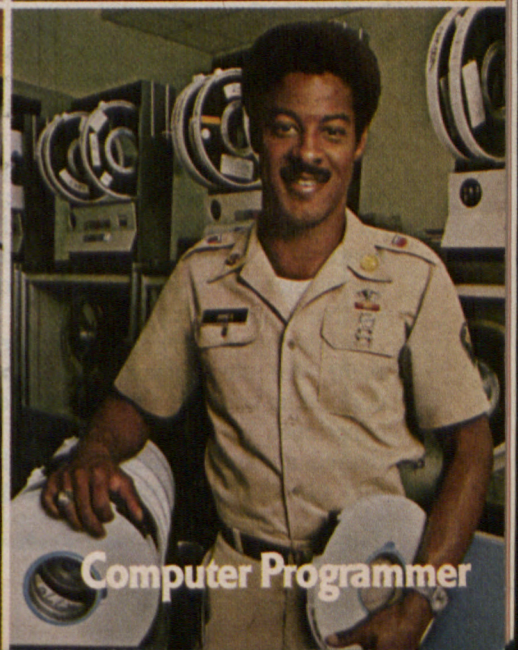
Radio Operator



Dental Specialist



Electrician



Computer Programmer

THE TEACHER AND THE LAW

(Continued)

tion of probationary employees. That spring, she received a termination notice to take effect at the end of the academic year.

Violation 3: Denial of Academic Freedom. A board of education in Michigan dismissed a kindergarten teacher on the basis of eight charges made by the superintendent. The charges involved discipline, teaching, classroom safety, getting along with colleagues, following directives, requesting equipment and supplies, and communicating with parents. Following a hearing, the school board found reasonable and just cause for dismissal.

Violation 4: Denial of Free Speech and Association. An English teacher on a continuing contract in Texas was nonrenewed and was unable to find another teaching position because of his free-speech and association activities. During the contract year, he had been elected president of a local chapter of the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), an event that was publicized by the local media.

Some time later, a student asked the teacher, between classes, for ACLU materials and membership information. The teacher supplied the materials. Although he engaged in a discussion of the history and purposes of the ACLU in class, he did not distribute the materials during class.

The principal then advised the teacher that he would be considered probationary and that his contract would not be renewed unless he proved he supported school policies and used approved materials in class—although there was no written policy requiring prior clearance of materials.

The teacher's name did not appear on the list of teachers to be renewed for the next school year. The school board held a public hearing at which the teacher was accompanied by counsel. No witnesses testified.

Violation 5: Denial of Fair Treatment. An elementary teacher on a continuing contract and with 13 years' experience in the school system was denied an annual increment without due process and then fired after he

requested a hearing. Afterward, the superintendent withdrew his recommendation of dismissal, the board notified the teacher that a hearing would be held on the denial of his increment, and he was asked to return to the classroom.

The board had indicated that an examiner would be present at the hearing, but it in fact held an informal hearing with no examiner present and no transcription of testimony—despite objection by the teacher's attorney that following such a procedure would constitute denial of due process. The board decided to deny the increment and nonrenew the teacher.

Following are the outcomes of the cases:

Rights Enforcement 1: *The court and state Commission on Human Rights upheld the teacher's right to freedom of religion.*

A U.S. district court dismissed with prejudice the case of *Gary Lee Kern v. Nixa School District, No. 74*, following an out-of-court settlement of \$1,000 and destruction of the teacher's official personnel file. In an earlier action brought by the teacher, the Missouri Commission on Human Rights found probable cause for a charge of religious discrimination.

Rights Enforcement 2: *The court upheld the professor's rights to contract by mutual consent and to receive fair treatment.*

The professor was reinstated with tenure. A state circuit court judge said that the college observed neither the required notification dates nor the law regarding attainment of tenure after three probationary appointments. He also said that the waiver agreement was not binding because it was a "factual misrepresentation of the College's authority to require new conditions to the contract. Since the waiver was based on a misrepresentation, there could be no meeting of the minds between the parties. . . ." [The DuShane Fund is withholding the name of the professor to protect her; the college has appealed the case.]

Rights Enforcement 3: *The court*

upheld the teacher's right to academic freedom.

The Michigan Court of Appeals ordered the teacher's reinstatement with back pay in *Louis Beebee v. Haslett Public Schools*. The court, upholding a circuit court decision, held that "given the presumption of fitness engendered by tenure statutes," the "just and reasonable cause" required by the Michigan statute for the discharge or demotion of a tenured teacher "can be shown only by significant evidence proving that a teacher is unfit to teach." The judge said that before an act may be deemed a ground for discharge, "it must bear directly on the teacher's fitness to teach and must cause a clearly discernible detriment to the school and to its students."

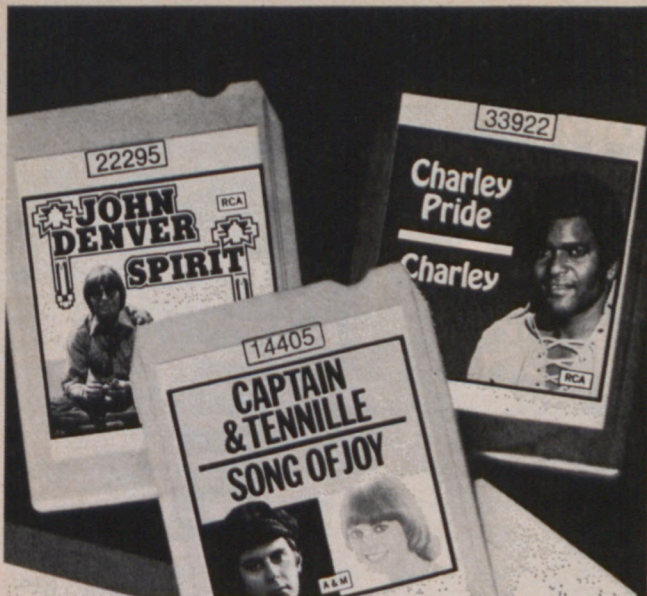
Rights Enforcement 4: *The court upheld the teacher's rights to freedom of speech and association and the equal protection of the laws.*

In *Wayne Woodward v. Hereford Independent School District*, a U.S. district court ordered the teacher reinstated with back pay and \$6,000 in attorneys' fees. It found no evidence that the teacher's actions disrupted school processes and found that he had been placed on probation and nonrenewed for his ACLU activities, activities that were protected by the First and Fourteenth Amendments to the Constitution. It awarded attorneys' fees based on its finding that the school district's actions were "unreasonable and obdurately obstinate."

Rights Enforcement 5: *The court upheld the teacher's right to due process.*

A U.S. district court awarded \$95,000 in compensatory and punitive damages and attorneys' fees to the teacher, holding that he had "suffered embarrassment, humiliation, and injury to [his] physical and mental health" as a result of the actions by the superintendent and board of trustees. [The DuShane Fund is withholding the name in this case to protect the teacher; the school district has appealed the decision.]

—DuShane Fund, NEA Teacher Rights.



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A man with dark hair and a mustache, wearing a dark suit, stands with his back to the camera. He is looking over his right shoulder towards the right side of the frame. The background is a light-colored wall with faint, repeating text patterns.

There was a sign which the Justice Department wouldn't touch. How the Justice Department had to prove its case like any other agency was a question that was

Where
Is the News
Leading Us?

AFRICA
photography
concerts & Lectures
TELEVISION This Week
evil
HEALTH CARE
Alaska Airlines
MUSEUM
sex
Fires
EDUCATION
Radio
Natural gas hikes
Police Dept
Watergate
Recycling
Washing
Matter of survival for the Postal Service
Education
er Week,
er Primary
Resolution
Radio
MUSIC
JUDGMENT
THEATRE
AMERICA
JEW
STORYTELLERS
BOOK Poetry
And Politics
Violence
Oil
poison
Freaks
The World's 12 Best
Worth of trust
Art of the Middle
People's Banking
There was a time when the Justice Department could't lose. Now the Justice Department has to order its loss like anyone else, says a Justice source.
Scandal
dreams
Margarita
Photography
Art Galleries

Not long ago I was asked to join in a public symposium on the role of the American press. Two other speakers were included on the program. The first was a distinguished TV anchorman. The other was the editor of one of the nation's leading papers, a newsman to the core—tough, aggressive, and savvy in the ways and means of solid reporting.

The purpose of the symposium, as I understood it, was to scrutinize the obligations of the media and to suggest the best ways to meet those obligations.

During the open-discussion period, a gentleman in the audience addressed a question to my two colleagues. Why, he asked, are the newspapers and the television news programs so disaster-prone? Why are newsmen and women so attracted to tragedy, violence, failure?

The anchorman and editor reacted as though they had been blamed for the existence of bad news. Newsmen and newswomen, they said, are only responsible for reporting the news, not for creating it or modifying it.

It didn't seem to me that the newsmen had answered the question. The gentleman who had asked it was not blaming them for the distortions in the world. He was just wondering why distortions are most reported. The news media seem to operate on the philosophy that all news is bad news. Why? Could it be that the emphasis on downside news is largely the result of tradition—the way newsmen and newswomen are accustomed to respond to daily events?

Perhaps it would be useful here to examine the way we define the word *news*, for this is where the problem begins. *News* is supposed to deal with happenings of the past 12 hours—24 hours at most. Anything that happens so suddenly,

however, is apt to be eruptive. A sniper kills some pedestrians; a terrorist holds 250 people hostage in a plane; OPEC announces a 25 percent increase in petroleum prices; Great Britain devalues by another 10 percent; a truck conveying radioactive wastes collides with a mobile cement mixer.

Focusing solely on these details, however, produces a misshapen picture. Civilization is a lot more than the sum total of its catastrophes. The most important ingredient in any civilization is progress. But progress doesn't happen all at once. It is not eruptive. Generally, it comes in bits and pieces, very little of it clearly visible at any given moment, but all of it involved in the making of historical change for the better.

It is this aspect of living history that most news reporting reflects inadequately. The result is that we are underinformed about positive developments and overinformed about disasters. This, in turn, leads to a public mood of defeatism and despair, which in themselves tend to be inhibitors of progress. An unrelieved diet of eruptive news depletes the essential human energies a free society needs. A mood of hopelessness and cynicism is hardly likely to furnish the energy needed to meet serious challenges.

I am not suggesting that "positive" news be contrived as an antidote to the disasters on page one. Nor do I define *positive news* as in-depth reportage of functions of the local YMCA. What I am trying to get across is the notion that the responsibility of the news media is to search out and report on important events—*whether or not* they come under the heading of conflict, confrontation, or catastrophe. The world is a splendid combination of heaven and hell, and *both* sectors call for attention and scrutiny.

My hope is that the profession of journalism will soon see its responsibility in a wider perspective. The

time has come to consider the existence of a large area of human happenings that legitimately qualify as news. For example, how many news articles have been written about nitrogen-fixation—the process by which plants can be made to "fix" their own nitrogen, thus reducing the need for fertilizer? Scientists all over the world are now pursuing this prospect in the hope of combating famine. How much is known about the revolutionary changes being made in increasing the rice harvest in the Far East? There are literally dozens of similar important developments in the world that are worthy of inclusion in any roundup of major news stories.

The anchorman and the editor were right in saying that newsmen and women are not responsible for shaping the world. But they *are* responsible for affecting our attitudes. We are only what we think we are; we can achieve only those goals we dare to envision. News people provide us with the only picture we have of ourselves and of the world. It had better be a true portrait—and not a caricature—for it is this picture on which we will base our decisions and around which we will plan our future.

The journalist, to paraphrase Walter Lippmann, is the public's philosopher. "The acquired culture," Lippmann wrote, "is not transmitted in our genes. The good life in the good society, though attainable, is never attained and possessed once and for all. What has been attained will again be lost if the wisdom of the good life in a good society is not transmitted."

With an accurate report of the good life in the good society, we can begin to use the news as Bernard de Chartres suggested we use history—boosting ourselves up on our experiences, "like dwarfs seated on the shoulders of giants," enabled, thus, "to see more things than the Ancients and things more distant." □

A New Voice for the Schools

By **HARRY S. BROUDY**

*Professor of Philosophy of Education,
University of Illinois,
Champaign-Urbana.*

The times cry out for a voice that can speak for the public schools with credibility and authority. If our public schools are to go beyond survival—and even survival cannot be taken for granted—that voice must be found soon. Here are a few reasons.

Loss of consensus. For almost a century, we had a consensus that was broad enough to enable the public schools to speak *in loco parentis*, *in loco communitatis*, and *in loco humanitatis*. The accepted mores of the family, the norms of civic behavior, and the cultural values of the community were those of the middle class.

The common aspiration of the body politic was a composite of ideas and ideals gleaned from religion, British Common Law, the Enlightenment, the Declaration of Independence, and the Constitution. Few understood the whole bundle, and even fewer were aware of the incompatibility among some of the components. Whether or not there was an effective melting pot of immigrants, there was a melting pot of feelings and ideas that resulted in what has been called vaguely but not inaccurately the American Dream.

Imperfect as that consensus was, it made sense out of the notion of a public school's serving a common good. Today not enough of that consensus remains to warrant our speaking of a public, a common

good, or a common school. There are as many publics as there are cultural, political, and economic enclaves that can make their special claims on the school board heard. The problems of implementing the civil rights legislation of the sixties revealed the dreamlike quality of the American Dream and shattered the Dream itself.

Loss of mission. When the American Dream was disrupted, so was the ideal of social service that the public tacitly expected of the learned professions, and especially of teaching. Specialized expertise, procedural correctness, loyalty to the guild, guild status, and material rewards have replaced the service ideal in law, medicine, engineering, and virtually every other major calling. This shift is understandable, because if there is no common good, or if its nature cannot be discerned, remaining loyal to it makes no sense; it makes more sense to transfer that loyalty to one's guild. Despite codes of ethics, the secular professions have disclaimed responsibility for anything but correct technical procedure.

It would be surprising if this development did not affect the educational calling. School and university administrators are so preoccupied with finance, management, and public relations that they could just as well be working for General Mills or General Electric. They have joined the guild of managers.

College professors of education have joined the ranks of academic consultants, researchers, developers, promoters, and grantsmen. Successful academics no longer simply

produce ideas; they are bold entrepreneurs who find the grants that enable them and their projects to become "visible" enough to attract other grants. The preparation of classroom teachers has slipped well down on their list of priorities.

As for the teachers themselves, the growing complexity of schooling, the size of the enterprise, and the increased demands for services they have been neither trained for nor enabled to provide has driven them into guilds of their own. They can no longer rely on the administrators or the professors for support. They remember that not long ago a whole spate of education writers labeled the American classroom teacher as oppressive, racist, and sadistic and that some school administrators were among the most vocal advocates of performance contracting, competency-based tests for teaching, and other devices to force teachers "to shape up."

Researchers berate teachers and administrators for not implementing their research. Teachers complain about impractical theorists and administrative bureaucracy. The public, at least as reported by the annual Gallup polls, rates the schools and teachers higher than the commentators think they do. The pundits, not the polls, cry, "The school is a disaster."

Loss of credibility. Whatever else these recriminations have accomplished, they have severely diminished the credibility of the schools. How long public confidence will hold up in the face of annual confrontations between school boards and teachers, administrative abdication of educational responsibility, and academic irrelevance is hard to say. The resistance to increasing financial support is as much a sign of bewilderment as of stinginess.

Here is a list, far from exhaustive, of confused and distorted ideas about the schools from the literature put out by educational authorities, federal agencies, educational

journals, and the mass media.

- The role of the teacher and teaching leads them all. The list of classifications, teaching styles, forms, competences, and attitudes is so long that it strains even the capacities of an ERIC system. The plethora of theories about teaching is no less depressing. As for the roles that the teacher is expected to fill, there is no limit; mother, father, sibling, scientist, Socrates, counselor, psychiatrist, social worker.

- The curriculum is a close second. From 1959 to 1964, the public was clamoring for excellence in science and mathematics, and teachers were supposed to guide pupils in learning these disciplines by discovery, induction, and sheer ingenuity. From 1965 to the early 70's, the curriculum stressed compassion for the children of the socially and economically depressed minorities. "Relating" was the goal of the curriculum and the criterion of good teaching. Now the stress has shifted from excellence for the elites and compassion for the unfortunate to basics for everyone. The schools have been called upon to change directions radically about every five years. No wonder last year's college graduates are confused.

- The public has been told that if teachers were competent, the school could get rid of crime on the school grounds and in the streets, solve the drug problem, diminish sexual promiscuity and pornography, and restore faith in American institutions. The schools have been told to enforce discipline, but cautioned that if they do so, they will be liable to court suits. They have been told to teach respect for American values, but warned not to hint that there may be value norms or that not all values may be equally American.

- Among the major frauds perpetrated on the American public is the notion that the federal and state governments cannot correct the effects of 200 years of discrimination and exploitation with unlimited

budgets, but that the schools can do it with modest grants for compensatory education, career education, bilingual programs, and magnet schools. These programs have merit on their own account, but as promises of social reform they are mischievous illusions.

- Perhaps most serious is the general belief that the cost of schools as measured by pupil per capita expenditures is the cost of instruction. Taxpayer groups cite teachers' and administrators' salaries as the big consumers of the budget, and, of course, they are. What the public does not appreciate is how much of the personnel budget pays for noninstructional activities that eat up the time of teachers and administrators. For one example, how much of the budget should be charged for the supervisory function that the public school takes over for the community for 180 days a year?

Credibility is based less on the truth of what is said than on who says it. Few laypersons—as we all are in most fields—can check the truth of what officials say or what the media say they say. Watergate showed the difficulty of getting at the truth when it is being covered up. The debates between experts on food additives or environmental dangers show how elusive the truth is even when there is no coverup. We have to trust the speaker's character and commitment. We judge the commitment by evidence that the speaker's advocacy of a cause is not self-serving. The new voice for education must qualify for credibility on this kind of evidence.

But credibility is not enough. The new voice must speak with at least two kinds of professional authority: intellectual and political. The public has to believe that teachers and administrators act on the basis of scholarship and experience. It is the business of the colleges of education to develop the knowledge and incorporate it in the prepara-

tion of teachers and administrators. Only competence that is based on scholarship and reflection on experience will give school personnel the right—as distinct from the power—to participate in educational policy making and decisions on curriculum and to autonomy in teaching.

Nothing would contribute more to our credibility and authority than making requirements for entry into teaching as demanding as requirements for an undergraduate degree in engineering, architecture, or agriculture. The courses required for the teaching certificate rarely occupy more than one-fourth of the hours prescribed for the A.B. or B.S. degree; often they occupy as little as one-eighth. When one subtracts the hours allocated to student teaching, the strictly professional content of the program is so small that it hardly differentiates the candidate from any other A.B. or B.S. graduate.

In this way we create every year a vast pool of potential teacher candidates from among all the people who were going to college anyway. Many of them never intended to teach unless nothing better turned up or simply could not make up their minds on any other professional career. We therefore rely heavily on in-service study for the survival of teachers who enter the field.

Such study does not build upon and upgrade preservice preparation—it is a substitute for it.

The results of easy entry are now becoming clear, but they could have been foreseen. The American public school system has always relied on a large supply of relatively inexpensive labor. The normal school once provided an inexpensive preparation for young women who could not afford to attend a four-year college; today the supply is maintained by the large number of young men and women who can. The supply of potential teachers can be restricted either by artificial shrinking of teacher education en-

rollments or by making preservice teacher preparation more rigorous and demanding—no more so, however, than the demands on the modern classroom teacher justify.

The intellectual authority of the profession, measured by the preservice program, is not impressive; measured by its record in research and scholarship, it is little better. The profession has yet to develop paradigms that standardize problems, methods, and literature. Theories multiply; few are tested by replication; if they die, it is because they fail to attract a coterie or a grant, not because they have been disproved. Problems and solutions reappear periodically and are treated as though nothing had been said or done about them before. Studies accumulate but are not cumulative. Fortunately, our educational enterprise, especially when it is meeting conditions laid down by various funding agencies, requires large numbers of researchers and evaluators. This enables us to attract a large amount of theoretical talent, a resource thus far more valuable for its promise than for its contributions.

The problems facing teachers and administrators are as much intellectual as technical. To understand the culture; to have command of one's discipline so as to move freely in it, through it, and with it in the instructional encounter; to understand the concerns of parents and the community and the dynamics of social forces—these are the contextual demands of school keeping in our time. Yet the resources to meet these demands—at present not adequately provided by general education requirements—are being diminished in favor of ever more narrowly defined skills and field experience.

Other professions—engineering, law, and medicine—are realizing that their practitioners will need more of these contextual studies and are expanding their curricula to include them. In our field,

it is becoming more and more difficult to distinguish between professional and paraprofessional criteria. When the outcomes of schooling are restricted to skills as measured by standardized tests, professional education is hard to find in those outcomes.

Professional authority will come from consensus on stringent entry requirements and procedural accuracy. But to make this authority effective as well as legitimate, organizational power is needed. Individual teachers, administrators, and perhaps individual colleges can achieve little in the way of reform, other than martyrdom. Effective power is collective, and the moral justification of collective political action is that it is grounded in an unquestioned, enlightened devotion to education. Can the public be persuaded that the education profession feels such devotion? The persuasion is the task of the new voice—if the profession supplies the devotion.

I am sure that within the three groups of educational personnel—teachers, administrators, and professors of education—are many who could undertake the task of persuasion, but I am equally confident that no one group commands the credibility and authority the times require. All three must speak together. Who can take the initiative in bringing them together?

One might try to seek out the best people in each group and form a new group to take the initiative for further work. But who is this “one” who will select the best people and call them together?

A small group of elite leaders could appoint themselves the initiators, but self-appointed elites have not had much success in influencing either the school establishment or the public.

Within the HEW, the Office of Education or the National Institute of Education are natural leaders, but their political sensitivity and the

blizzard of paper and procedure that swirls around their every move reduce their credibility with the rank and file, to whom the goings-on in Washington are dark, mysterious, and formidable.

Hundreds of panelists pore over thousands of proposals on which millions of hours have been spent. Out of the small end of the funnel are supposed to drop the best proposals concocted by the brightest and most innovative teachers, administrators, and researchers. Perhaps so. The theoretical and practical results, however, give reason to be less than optimistic about the talent and the projects that Washington funding agencies will anoint.

The private foundations should have high credibility, inasmuch as they are devoted to saving education from educators. Unfortunately, the network of old boys serving on their advisory boards, panels, and commissions have their own ideologies and values, and respect for public schools and the people who work in them is not conspicuous among them.

Foundation ventures, more often than not, have been designed to deprofessionalize teaching and to undermine faith in the public schools. The Ford and Carnegie attacks on teacher education and the public schools are only a few of the expensive, well-publicized ventures that come to mind. Moreover, foundations too have their bureaucrats with careers to think of. That they can be trusted to have unbiased views of the public school and to speak for it seems, to me at least, doubtful.

A more likely set of candidates might be the state officers of public instruction or state commissioners of education. Increasingly state departments are the pipelines for funds from Washington. They oversee the certification of teachers, and they are charged with the legal responsibility for the public schools.

One would like to think that in

recent years this group has acquired both the credibility and the authority, intellectual and political, to represent the schools to the public and the public to the schools. They have an official organization that should be aware of conditions in the nation as a whole, and they have access to the best research and policy wisdom available anywhere. They are in especially important positions to cope with at least some of the developments that are keeping the public schools off balance. The intervention of the courts in many phases of schooling can best be explored and traversed at the state level, as can the related problems of school funding. Someone has to direct the increasing traffic of federal and state efforts to mandate special studies and curriculums. Perhaps the community needs intervention from outside sources less—even when they bring gifts of money with them—than protection from the mindless bandwagons that every few years disrupt the educational process. State departments could furnish this protection.

I have no way of knowing whether these officials are willing to bring together teacher organizations, colleges of education, and school administrators and to serve as their voice, but they might try.

If *mirabile dictu* a new voice for the schools is created or identified, on what subjects might it speak?

- A new consensus on a minimum of content and procedure that might reconstitute a common curriculum.

- An integrated effort by the teachers colleges, teachers organizations, school administrators, and certification bureaus to formulate a first-rate program of teacher educa-

tion—something approaching in rigor the undergraduate program in engineering, architecture, or agriculture.

- The things a school can and cannot do and the things a teacher can and cannot do.

- What the community's tax dollars buy and what it would cost to buy many of these services, especially the noninstructional ones, if the school did not provide them.

- The intrinsic value of education to the quality of the person. Educational managers advise the public that it ought to think only of the occupational value of schooling. The educators might learn that the public has a greater respect for the cultivation of human powers than they have.

- The conditions under which teachers can legitimately claim professional status and can participate in decisions about curriculum, the organization of instruction, and educational policy in general.

- Ways in which such teachers can be paid on a truly professional scale.

These are the realities that the tissue of rhetoric, bureaucracy, and political maneuvering have pretty well concealed. If the schools do not survive or just barely survive, it will be owing less to the decline of the pupil population, inflation, and the other immediate predicaments facing them than to our reluctance to probe these deeper layers of concern and to speak with a voice that the public and school people can believe. □

Dr. Broudy spoke at greater length on this topic at the NEA Western Regional Conference in San Francisco in November 1976.

What To Do About Basic Skills in Math

By ROSS TAYLOR

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Minneapolis (Minnesota) Public Schools,
and Chairperson, Task Force on Basic
Mathematical Skills, National Council
of Supervisors of Mathematics.*

Today we in the schools are being urged (or in some cases pressured) to go back to the basics. With respect to instruction in mathematics, this trend has potential for both progress and peril.

The stress on basics can result in progress in the learning of basic mathematical skills. We have never had a better opportunity to take a close look at mathematical skills, decide which are basic, and then take steps to see that students learn these skills. On the other hand, the emphasis on going back to basics can result in peril. We cannot go back to the mathematical skills of yesterday for today's students who must live in an increasingly complex technological society.

A number of forces have helped bring about the back-to-basics trend—declining scores on standardized achievement tests, the results of national assessment tests, rising costs of education, the accountability movement, and the increasing awareness of the need for remedial and compensatory programs. At the same time, in the past few years, the public has tended to shift the responsibility for learning from students and parents to the schools. In such times, the call to go back to the basics has a simplistic appeal; it implies that by going back, schools can provide students with a better education at lower cost.

What could be the effect of the

back-to-basics movement on the mathematics program? Instruction that stresses computation and neglects other mathematical skills, instruction that tends to stress drill and practice methods.

Mathematics educators are concerned about the danger of stressing computation while neglecting other important skills.

The following statement by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics reflects this concern:

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics is encouraged by the current public concern for universal competence in the basic computational skills. The Council supports strong school programs that promote computational competence within a good mathematics program, and we urge all teachers of mathematics to respond to this concern in positive ways.

We are deeply distressed, however, by the danger that the "back to basics" movement might eliminate teaching for mathematical understanding. It will do citizens no good to have the ability to compute if they do not know what computations to perform when they meet a problem. The use of the hand-held calculator emphasizes this need for understanding: One must know when to push what button. . . .

In a total mathematics program, students need more than arithmetic skill and understanding. They need to develop geometric intuition as an aid to problem solving. They must be able to interpret data. Without these and many other mathematical understandings, citizens are not mathematically functional. . . .

The National Council of Supervisors of Mathematics (NCSM) is also concerned about the back-to-basics movement and its effect on

mathematics instruction. Under a grant from the National Institute of Education, the Council has prepared a position paper on basic mathematical skills that lists the following 10 important skills that all students will need:

- **Problem Solving:** Students should be able to solve problems in situations which are new to them.

- **Applying Mathematics to Everyday Situations:** Students should be able to use mathematics to deal with situations they face daily in an ever-changing world.

- **Alertness to Reasonableness of Results:** Students should learn to check to see that their answers to problems are "in the ballpark."

- **Estimation and Approximation:** Students should learn to estimate quantity, length, distance, weight, etc.

- **Appropriate Computational Skills:** Students should be able to use the four basic operations with whole numbers and decimals and they should be able to do computations with simple fractions and percents.

- **Geometry:** Students should know basic properties of simple geometric figures.

- **Measurement:** Students should be able to measure in both the metric and customary systems.

- **Tables, Charts, and Graphs:** Students should be able to read and make simple tables, charts, and graphs.

- **Using Mathematics To Predict:** Students should know how mathematics is used to find the likelihood of future events.

- **Computer Literacy:** Students should know about the many uses of computers in society, and they should be aware of what computers can do and what they cannot do.

The one overriding goal for mathematics instruction today is problem solving. We don't know exactly what problems students will

face in the future, but we do know that they will be living in a world of change. Therefore, we must prepare them to deal with the wide range of problems that they will face in a variety of situations. The other nine skill areas in the list are important primarily because of their relationship to the student's ability to solve problems.

The list of mathematical skills that are considered basic is changing. For example, as we convert to the metric system, the significance of customary measurement will be mainly historical. As our society increases its use of electronic calculators and computers, students will need to know when and how to use them.

By using only a tiny fraction of their budgets, schools could provide all students with opportunity to increase computer literacy through hands-on experience. For example, all secondary schools and a majority of the elementary schools in the Minneapolis Public Schools have terminals that communicate by phone with central computers.

The use of calculators and computers and the changeover to the metric system will tend to increase the importance of decimals and decrease the importance of fractions. This is just as well, because students have less trouble learning to compute with decimals than with fractions. In working with decimals, they can build on the procedures they learned for whole numbers, but in working with fractions, they must learn completely new mathematical procedures.

Who should decide which skills should be taught and when? Right now, it appears that everyone wants a piece of the action.

Teachers who are on the firing line and who should have a major influence in these decisions must make their voices heard or else they will find that the decisions will be made for them by others. They must

influence decisions at the local level through work on curriculum committees. They must work through their professional organizations to ensure that they have influence in the decision-making process. They must work with state organizations to influence decisions about issues like statewide assessment or statewide proficiency requirements.

At the local level, parents and the rest of the lay public have shown increasing interest in being involved in curriculum decisions. Teachers and administrators should welcome

Not back, but forward to the basics.

this interest and get the lay public involved in working with curriculum. When the lay public finds out firsthand the job that teachers have to do and when it has a vested interest in school programs, it usually becomes a strong supporter of those programs.

Today some state legislatures and local school boards require the mastery of certain minimum skills for high school graduation. Those who make these requirements should be very careful. If requirements are set too high, many students will not be eligible to receive a diploma. On the other hand, if requirements are set low enough for most students to meet them, the mathematical goals for many students may sink to this minimal level. In fact, the whole issue of minimum requirements tends to raise more questions than it answers.

Some school authorities are also considering minimal-competency requirements in basic skills for promotion from one grade to another. Such requirements can be harmful if they penalize students with slow learning rates or if they result in a mathematics program that only focuses on minimal competencies. On

the other hand, a program that identifies deficiencies and provides students help in overcoming them can be particularly helpful in a subject like mathematics where much of the learning depends on prior acquisition of prerequisite skills.

Basic mathematical skills, however, should include more than just minimal survival skills. Students should be encouraged to acquire a wide range of mathematical skills. Even in the limited job market of today, opportunities in fields that require a good background in mathematics are expanding. Students should be made aware that their employment and educational opportunities will increase as their mathematical skills grow. In particular, minority and female students should be made aware of opportunities that can come to them through a study of various fields of mathematics.

Teachers must continue to point out to administrators, school boards, and the public that if they are to be held responsible for improving the achievement of students in basic skills, they must be given a chance to succeed. They need reasonable pupil-teacher ratios, suitable learning materials, inservice opportunities, adequate time to prepare lessons, and support from school administrations.

The back-to-the-basics thrust gives us great opportunity if we can turn it around and go "forward to the basics" and if we can focus attention on the resources that are needed to do the job. If we take this opportunity, we will be able to offer students the background in basic mathematical skills they will need to meet the challenges they will face. □

To obtain a copy of the NCSM position paper, send a stamped, self-addressed business envelope to Ross Taylor, NCSM Basic Skills, Minneapolis Public Schools, 807 Broadway, N.E., Minneapolis, MN 55413.

Instructions: This test contains various short paragraphs to be read. For each paragraph, there is a question to be answered on the answer sheet.

Read each paragraph carefully and respond to the question. Various choices are given for each question, but only one is correct. Select the answer that you think is correct, mark it at the top of the sheet and locate the answer on the answer sheet to the paragraph. Finally, mark the answer on the answer sheet.

Below are two sample exercises. The first is to mark your answers on the answer sheet.

SAMPLE

Jim loves to watch TV after his homework is done. But he frequently dozes off on the sofa while doing so.

X1. What does Jim do after his homework is done?

- (a) Goes to bed
- (b) Helps his mother
- (c) Watches TV
- (d) Visits a friend

Mary plays field hockey at school, but her favorite sport is tennis, which she plays on weekends.

X2. When does Mary play tennis?

- (a) After school
- (b) In gym class
- (c) Never
- (d) On weekends

ANSWER

(a)

(d)

SPECIAL FEATURE ON TESTING

What's Wrong with Standardized Testing?

In the social sciences, economics is known as the dismal science. In education the "dismal science" has to be standardized testing.

- Its history is ominous.
 - Much test content is unimportant or irrelevant.
 - The structure and formats of the tests are confusing and misleading.
 - The process of administering the tests is demeaning, wasteful of time, and counterproductive.
 - The application of statistics that result from test scores distorts reality.
 - It is difficult, if not impossible, to ensure that test results will be used either to improve student learning or to help teachers improve instruction.
- The paragraphs that follow develop each of these points.

The Dismal Science of Education Has a Dismal History

Intelligence and achievement testing began in the United States about the turn of the century and is closely associated with developments in France. The story is well known of how the French minister of public instruction commissioned Alfred Binet to construct a test to identify students whose aptitudes were so low that they should be placed in special schools. Binet soon found himself opposing those philosophers who supported the idea that intelligence is a fixed quantity. He said, "We must protest and react against this brutal pessimism." (This remark of Binet's and the Terman and Goddard data cited below are reported in Leon Kamin's article, "The Politics of IQ," *National Elementary Principal*, March-April 1975.)

But the Americans who were influential in bringing the Binet test to America, Lewis Terman of Stanford University and Henry Goddard of the Vineland Training School in New Jersey, espoused the "brutal pessimism." Terman's translation became the widely used Stanford-Binet IQ Test.

The U.S. Public Health Service commissioned Goddard to administer the Binet test to immigrants at the receiving station on Ellis Island. The test results "showed" that 87 percent of Russians, 83 percent of Jews, 80 percent of Hungarians, and 79 percent of Italians were feeble-minded. Consequently,

the percentage of aliens deported for feeble-mindedness rose by 350 percent in 1913. A history to be proud of? A record leading to enlightenment? For shame!

The next gathering of destructive test data was during World War I when mental tests were given en masse to draftees. Analysis of these results immediately following the war resulted in their discriminatory use against Blacks—to demonstrate that Blacks had lower IQs than Whites. And so it goes. Between then and now is a history of further “refinement” of essentially the same content and formats, of the misuse and abuse of the same kinds of IQ tests that so destructively dealt with immigrants and minority groups in the early 1900’s and during World War I.

The history of standardized achievement testing is only slightly less dismal than that of IQ tests. Edward L. Thorndike developed the first formal achievement tests in 1904. The main reason for achievement testing was not to assess student progress or improve teaching but to establish the profession of psychology as a science separate from philosophy. Never mind the students and teachers and their needs. The psychologists saw the opportunity to be considered scientists if they came up with precise measuring tools with which to ply their trade. Thorndike wrote that “the nature of educational measurement is the same as that of all scientific measurement.” And so the course was set, a course that has never been reversed: The evaluation of student progress would be considered in the same realm with measuring tolerances of automobile pistons or the trajectory of missiles.

The near panic among the American public created by Russia’s launching of the Sputnik in 1957 led to vastly increased testing programs. This overemphasis on the use of tests resulted in several published warnings of the dangers of such proliferation. *Testing Testing Testing*, by a joint committee of national educational associations, and *The Tyranny of Testing*, by Banesh Hoffmann, were among them. But these warnings went unheeded. And before the end of the 60’s, evaluation guidelines of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act resulted in even more standardized testing.

By the early 1970’s, the situation had become so oppressive that warnings were once again heralded. A national task force of the National Education Association and two substantive and penetrating issues of the *National Elementary Principal* (March-April 1975, July-August 1975) were among those sounding the alarm. Even as this article goes to press, the *Reader’s Digest* carries a warning piece on the potential dangers of standardized testing—and a report out of London discredits a British psychologist’s studies of identical twins, a major source for the conclusion that IQ is innate.

At the same time a movement called performance-based education calls for more testing, much of which is or promises to become standardized in one form or another. One is reminded of the refrain, “When will they ever learn, when will they ever learn?”

The Substance Is Thin

Ralph Tyler’s observation that standardized tests get “small answers to small questions” is apt. The content of the tests evaluates little more than the ability to recall facts, define words, and do routine calculations. Obviously, not all these things are unimportant, but even in the reading and mathematics parts of these tests, many of the questions are inane. The mathematics sections emphasize mechanical calculation at a time when inexpensive electronic calculators are available to the general public. And the tests make almost no provision for evaluating a student’s ability to estimate or to measure real things—important skills needed for functioning as workers and citizens. As one prominent mathematician has put it, “The concepts sections of most of the commonly used achievement tests suffer from the fact that they trivialize the concepts.” Large percentages of the items in standardized tests, particularly in IQ tests, are limited to word definitions, all of which are learnable and tell little about students’ general aptitudes. Further, the words to be defined are often obscure, infrequently used or encountered in reading, writing, and speaking.

If the content of the basic skills tests and IQ tests is poor, that in the social studies is infinitely worse. For example, the social-studies part of one nationally prominent test reflects little of contemporary curriculum change and improvement in this subject area. One review states that it totally neglects “the art of discovery” and “process,” both very much a part of accepted teaching strategies today. And of science test items, a scientist-researcher says, “They are incorrect, misleading, skewed in emphasis, and irrelevant.”

The content of standardized tests emphasizes getting “right answers,” almost totally neglecting the thought process by which the answers are arrived at. Interestingly, a recent Gallup poll indicates that a major educational concern of parents is that the schools help students think for themselves.

Much else that is wrong with the substance of standardized tests can be only briefly cited here:

- Test content does not reflect local instructional objectives or specific curriculums.
- Much of the content is unimportant or irrelevant to anything students need to know or understand.
- Test content measures mainly recall-type learning, neglecting the higher thought processes—analyzing, synthesizing, and drawing generalizations and applying them to new phenomena.
- The tests give an incomplete picture of student

Ralph Tyler's observation that standardized tests get "small answers to small questions" is apt. Those tests should not be used.

learning progress, because items that all or almost all students have learned are removed from the tests in order to keep the norming procedure statistically sound.

- The test maker uses a language that is not commonly used in other activities in the real world.
- Test items are unduly complex and require too many different manipulations; sometimes instructions for the items are unclear.
- Test vocabularies and illustrations are often unfamiliar to those who are not of white middle-class cultures or for whom English is a second language; that is, the tests are culturally and linguistically biased.

The Formats and Structures Are Confused and Confusing

The test formats are unimaginative, restrictive of creative thinking, and confusing. The multiple-choice mentality that is sometimes referred to in jest ("A, B, C, or none of the above") is more than a cliché. Large numbers of items in most standardized tests are multiple-choice. The assertion that students become more able to think for themselves by learning to respond to multiple-choice items offers a simplistic solution to a complex problem. In fact, there is some evidence that the reverse is true. Because each multiple-choice item must appear somewhat plausible as an answer in order to minimize guessing, more than one answer can often be logically assumed to be right. This works particular hardships on those who think most creatively and innovatively.

Because of space limitations, test illustrations and pictures frequently are out of proportion: An eraser is about the same size as an automobile, houses are smaller than people, etc.

The need for speed in taking the tests imposes an artificial structure that is not characteristic of real-life tasks. Obviously, students need to learn to work rapidly and accurately. But in the real world, not much is comparable to answering 40 multiple-choice items in 60 minutes, or whatever.

The Process of Testing Is Inefficient and Dehumanizing

Standardized testing uses up inordinate amounts of precious instructional time. Thousands of hours go into testing that might better be used in individualizing

instruction and planning for teaching. In terms of cost efficiency, the testing business runs into hundreds of millions of dollars, the results of which provide little or no help to students and teachers.

Testing situations generate fear, imply mistrust, and generally threaten and demean students. The emphasis on competition, the pressure of time, and the measures used to discourage cheating cause students to have lowered self-concepts and to feel insecure and mistrusted.

Testing settings are frequently physically intolerable: Time periods of testing are too long, instructions are blared out on public address systems, and large groups of students are herded into cafeterias or auditoriums where they work on their laps.

The Reporting, Interpretation, and Use of Results Are Harmful

In spite of the evidence, the test makers say that there isn't much wrong with the content, structure, and formats of the tests. And while they admit that there are abuses in reporting, interpreting, and using the results, they assume little responsibility for this. They argue that if administrators and teachers would just interpret and use the results properly, everything would be all right. Well, everything wouldn't be all right.

Surely practitioners can improve test interpretation and usage, but proper interpretation and usage are almost unattainable because of the kind of substance and formats mentioned in the preceding paragraphs. It is nearly impossible to separate content and structure from usage—content and structure, in large part, determine usage.

Even if it were possible to separate content and structure from usage, large problems of usage would still remain. Let us examine some of them.

The standardization process in testing leads to reporting of results in terms of averages (norms). This distribution of scores along a range ensures that half the students will be below average no matter how well they do. Since there is nothing beyond subjective judgment to determine how "good" average (or above or below average) is, it is possible that "below average" represents good progress on some tests and "above average" represents poor progress on others.

On the matter of interpretation of results, a major

More and better evaluation procedures will be required

fault with standardized testing is attributing to the findings much more meaning than they deserve—assuming that verbal and quantitative scores stand for general intelligence, for example. Guilford and his associates confirmed long ago that the intellect has many dimensions, of which verbal and quantitative abilities are only a part.

The statement of a prominent psychometrist that if she had just one measure of intelligence it would be vocabulary represents the kind of narrow point of view about interpreting test scores that does disservice to both those who are tested and those who use scores to make decisions that may affect human beings throughout their lives. On the achievement-test side, a student's ability (or inability) to respond "correctly" to more than half the items on a standardized achievement test in biology or social studies tells too little of his or her potential in either of these subjects to be a basis for broad-range decision making.

Yet decisions are made regularly on such narrow data, decisions that may limit or deny students' opportunities. On the basis of standardized tests results, students are categorized, grouped, and pigeonholed; placed in classes for the retarded; excluded from particular courses of study; prohibited from pursuing advanced programs; barred from particular institutions; and even denied job opportunities. And all this, sometimes on as small a basis as two or three wrong answers, answers to questions that themselves may be highly questionable.

Even when test results are not used in formal decision-making processes, they affect practitioners' expectations of particular students. "Mary is in the lower quartile. There is not much use spending time on her; she just doesn't have it," is an attitude that test results create. But Mary may "have it," and the reasons for the low test scores may have been the particular testing situation or Mary's physical or emotional situation at testing time. Or Mary may "have it" in many ways not evaluated by the tests. But since the tests themselves create the impression that they measure what's important or most of what's important, Mary may not get much attention after scoring low on them.

Decision making on the basis of standardized test scores goes far beyond the classroom. School administrators use test scores in comparing classrooms and school buildings and make decisions on programs and

personnel accordingly, school boards and legislatures use scores to determine the allocation of resources, and the public judges the overall quality of education on the basis of the scores they read about in the papers. None of these uses is appropriate. All of them assume that the tests indicate much more than any group-administered standardized test is capable of.

Most important, for students and teachers, the test results are too broad and general to provide diagnosis of individual student learning problems, and they don't help teachers select the most appropriate teaching methodologies for individual students or groups of students.

In the Final Analysis

The schools and colleges of America should not use group-administered norm-referenced standardized intelligence, aptitude, and achievement tests. As Jerrold Zacharias, prominent physicist and professor emeritus at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, pointed out in the *National Elementary Principal*, it is not sufficient to "retreat to catch phrases like 'I know these tests are not very good, but they are all we have.' There are many other ways to assess a child's general competence. They may not look numerical or scientific, but they are known to every teacher and every school principal who reads this journal."

Among such other ways are objectives-referenced (criterion-referenced) tests of which teacher-made tests are a part, individual diagnostic instruments, interviews of students to determine their progress and learning needs, evaluation of the products of student work and their live performances, simulation, contracts with students, student self-evaluation, and peer evaluation. (Some of these alternatives are dealt with elsewhere in this feature.)

Almost no one wants less rigorous evaluation of student-learning progress. If the American schools are to respond effectively to agreed-on goals and objectives, more and better evaluation procedures will be required. *But one thing is certain: Large-scale mass-administered standardized testing programs will not accomplish this mission.*

Most teachers are well aware of this. They need to use their expertise, professional judgment, and influence with other educators and the public to end such testing programs in their school systems. And individually and collectively, they need to influence the testing industry, state education departments, and other groups to reallocate their large resources to research, develop, field test, and disseminate a broad range of alternatives to standardized tests for evaluating student learning progress and to help teachers improve instruction.

—**Bernard McKenna**, *NEA Instruction and Professional Development*.

The Looking-Glass World of Testing

By **EDWIN F. TAYLOR**

Senior Research Scientist, Department of
Physics and Division for Study and Research
in Education, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Curiouser and Curiouser

Take a look at this multiple-choice question:

Scientists study three basic kinds of things—animals, vegetables, and

people

stars

minerals

foods

religions

“Animal, vegetable, or mineral” is a way to divide up the world in the game “20 Questions.” It has nothing to do with what scientists study. In fact, scientists study (among other things) people *and* stars *and* minerals *and* foods *and* (if you include archaeology) religions. The description of science implied by this test question is nonsense. No sense.

That question is from a standardized achievement test for elementary school children. (We’ll mention later the meanings of *standardized* and *achievement*.)

Now look at this question from another test:

If $\frac{1}{2}$ of 6 is 3, then $\frac{1}{4}$ of 8 is ____.

Never mind the answer (which is also presented as multiple-choice): What does the question mean? If . . . then . . . usually means that one thing follows logically from something else. What is the logical connection between $\frac{1}{2}$ of 6 and $\frac{1}{4}$ of 8? There isn’t any. No logic.

Here is a third question from the same page of the same test as the preceding one:

Different melons weighed 12 lb, 10 lb, 22 lb, 15 lb, and 16 lb. How many pounds did the middle-sized one weigh?

Before answering the question, think of a canta-

Dr. Taylor is also editor of *The American Journal of Physics* and staff member of Project TORQUE, Education Development Center, Newton, Massachusetts, which is developing achievement tests in mathematics for elementary schools.



loupe or honeydew melon in a supermarket: What does it weigh? A small one, 2 or 3 pounds; a big one, 7 or 8 pounds. The question says “12 lb, 10 lb, 22 lb, 15 lb, and 16 lb.” Good grief, they are all huge! None of them is middle-sized. They are unreal. No reality.

Through the Looking Glass

No sense, no logic, no reality. That is the impression you get from reading through test after standardized test. At first you think there must be some mistake, some one or two test makers who do a particularly poor job. And some tests *are* truly terrible. But *all* of them I have read are at least bad.

Test makers clearly live in some sort of fantasy world. That would be all right by me except that my children and yours are judged by their standards. In order to succeed on these important tests, our children must adopt their crazy logic and distorted view of reality.

From the outside, the testing business seems useful, helpful, normal, and impressive. Most people want to know how well their children are doing in school and how well their school is doing in comparison with other schools. Each test has been tried out with thousands of children (“standardized”) so one expects that all the bugs have been worked out of it.

But the tests themselves are secret, in the sense that parents and other public groups cannot examine and discuss them. And as soon as you look *inside* the tests, you realize that instead of being useful, helpful, nor-

THE ORIGINAL LOOKING-GLASS ACHIEVEMENT TEST

"Can you do Addition?" the White Queen asked. "What's one and one and one and one and one and one and one and one and one and one?"

"I don't know," said Alice. "I lost count."

"She can't do Addition," the Red Queen interrupted. "Can you do Subtraction? Take nine from eight."

"Nine from eight, I can't, you know," Alice replied readily, "but—"

"She can't do Subtraction," said the White Queen. "Can you do Division? Divide a loaf by a knife—what's the answer to that?"

"I suppose—" Alice was beginning, but the Red Queen answered for her. "Bread and Butter, of course. Try another Subtraction sum. Take a bone from a dog, what remains?"

Alice considered. "The bone wouldn't remain, of course, if I took it—and the dog wouldn't remain; it would come to bite me—and I'm sure I shouldn't remain!"

"Then you think nothing would remain?" said the Red Queen.

"I think that's the answer."

"Wrong, as usual," said the Red Queen. "The dog's temper would remain."

"But I don't see how—"

"Why, look here!" the Red Queen cried. "The dog would lose its temper, wouldn't it?"

"Perhaps it would," Alice replied cautiously.

"Then if the dog went away, its temper would remain!" the Queen exclaimed triumphantly.

Alice said as gravely as she could, "They might go different ways." But she couldn't help thinking to herself, "What dreadful nonsense we are talking!"

"She can't do sums a *bit*!" the Queens said together, with great emphasis.

mal, and impressive, they are none of the above. One feels like Alice in *Through the Looking Glass*, who stepped into the fantasy world behind the mirror over her fireplace.

Then she began looking about, and noticed that what could be seen from the old room was quite common and uninteresting, but that all the rest was as different as possible. For instance, the pictures on the wall next the fire seemed to be all alive, and the very clock on the chimney piece (you know you can only see the back of it in the Looking Glass) had got the face of a little old man, and grinned at her.

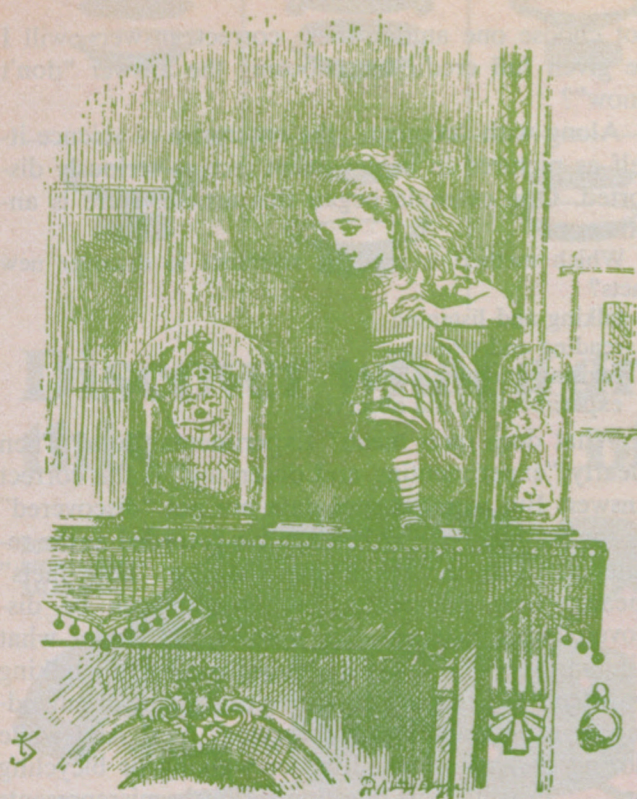
In this article we take a very brief stroll around the looking-glass world of standardized achievement tests. (Achievement tests examine what you know or do, as opposed to aptitude or intelligence tests which examine—supposedly—what your potential for learning is.) To keep the story simple, we will quote examples only from tests for elementary and junior high school students (for children up to age 13 or 14).

As you look at one of these test questions, do not congratulate yourself for knowing the "right" answer: that is to be trapped behind the looking glass. Instead, think about the logic and reality of the question itself, the number of different ways it can be interpreted by children from a variety of backgrounds, how many of the given multiple-choice answers could be correct, and where a child must look out for a trick, a trap, or a simple mistake by the test maker.

Looking-Glass Numbers

Two of the questions that began this article are examples of looking-glass arithmetic: the manipulation of numbers. But numbers themselves become





This answer is *called* letter C. In order to answer the question, the poor child has to keep in mind simultaneously all these names and names for names. He or she may feel like Alice when the White Knight explains the names for his song:

"The name of the song is called '*Haddocks' Eyes*.'"

"Oh, that's the name of the song, is it?" Alice said, trying to feel interested.

"No, you don't understand," the Knight said, looking a little vexed. "That's what the name is *called*. The name really is '*The Aged, Aged Man*.'"

"Then I ought to have said, 'That's what the *song* is called?'" Alice corrected herself.

"No, you oughtn't; that's quite another thing! The *song* is called '*Ways and Means*'; but that's only what it's *called*, you know!"

"Well, what *is* the song, then?" said Alice, who was by this time completely bewildered.

"I was coming to that," the Knight said. "The song really is '*A-sitting on a Gate*'; and the tune's my own invention."

Looking-Glass Social Studies

Here is an example of what my colleague Judah Schwartz calls "A is to B as C is to almost anything":

Pullman was to railway cars what—

Whitney was to oil

Goodyear was to rubber

Jefferson was to cotton

Boston was to beans

don't know

Since there is no unique relationship between different *kinds* of things (such as a person and a product), the item asks, in effect, "What am I thinking?" The result is to penalize inventiveness. Boston produced beans just as surely as Pullman produced railway cars. Tests are full of this kind of question, particularly the college entrance examinations.

Looking-Glass Science

In no field is the unreality of the test maker's world more apparent than in science. Here is a looking-glass question about mirrors:

What does this picture of a boy looking at himself in a mirror illustrate?

— focusing

— transparency

— dispersion

— reflection

— [don't know]

This is one of many, many examples of a multiple-choice problem in which *all* the choices are correct. The picture of a boy looking at himself in a mirror illustrates focusing of his eyes (and ours!); it illustrates transparency of the glass; it illustrates color fringes due to different speeds of light of different wavelengths in the glass (called dispersion—the original figure is two-color with blue and black, so is "in color"); and it certainly illustrates reflection. If I can-

weirdly distorted in standardized tests. Try this question:

How many hundreds are in 20 tens?

Never mind the answer itself: What possible *use* will the answer have? Does any scientist, doctor, lawyer, shopkeeper, or homeowner need to know how to answer this question? The test maker will mumble something about "place value," which means that children should realize that $20 + 1$ equals 21 and not 30. But if children have this kind of trouble, you help them with that rather than teach them some jargon.

Apart from its uselessness, the question contains a linguistic trap. Since 20 tens equal 200, therefore there are two hundreds in 20 tens. So the answer is 200, right? Wrong! But never mind.

Here is another question about numbers, in fact the number zero.

36 Which of these are names for zero?

I. $0 + 10$

II. 0×10

III. $0 \div 10$

A. II only

B. I and II only

C. II and III only

D. I, II and III

First of all, what does "names for zero" mean? I know four names for zero: *null*, *void*, *zip*, and *zilch*. None of them appears among the answers, so try again. Apparently 0×10 is a name for zero. This name for zero is *called* Roman numeral II. Another name for zero is *called* III. The answer is "II and III."

COMMANDMENTS FOR TAKING A STANDARDIZED TEST

I. Thou shalt not make subtle distinctions. (The universe must fit into four or five boxes.)

II. Thou shalt not think broadly. (Only one given answer can be correct.)

III. Thou shalt not have thine own ideas. (Adopt the fantasy world of the test maker, or else fail.)

IV. Thou shalt not devise unusual relations among things. (A is to B as C is to what Somebody Else has in mind.)

V. Thou shalt not be different in unique ways. (You are being compared with others along a single line according to a "normal" curve.)

VI. Thou shalt be better at naming a concept than at using the concept. (Word recognition is the easiest skill to test.)

VII. Thou shalt not try too hard. (Let your middle-class background guide your choice of answer; if you are not middle class, too bad.)

VIII. Thou shalt not be confused by misleading or crowded graphic layout.

IX. Thou shalt not confuse the answer with the name of the answer, with the number or letter of the answer, or with the box to be shaded to tell the computer the number or letter that corresponds to the answer thou hast chosen.

X. Thou shalt not be frightened. ("... don't be nervous [said the King], or I'll have you executed on the spot.")

not choose one among these correct answers, will I be given full credit for choosing the answer "don't know"?

Along with "content," the enterprise of science itself as pictured in achievement tests is seriously distorted. One example began this article. Here is another one:

Which method is used by scientists to discover new facts?

talking and listening
reading and writing
revising and amending
experimenting and observing

What does *facts* mean? Experimental data? Then clearly "experimenting and observing" is the correct answer. But experimental data are not "discovered" as some kind of surprise: They are recorded as the result of planned experiments. Maybe "new facts" means "new theories." New theories *can* be discovered, but *how* are they discovered? Under what circumstances have *you* had new ideas? While talking or listening or reading or writing or revising or amending or experimenting or observing? Yes! And while dozing or waking or sitting or walking or bicycling or. . . . In truth, this question seriously misrepresents the enterprise of science. In order to answer the question at all, the child must adopt the fantasy world of the test maker.

Origins of the Looking-Glass World of Testing

Are all test items as bad as the ones we have shown? No, but a significant percentage are, the percentage being greater or smaller depending on how you set your sights. Banesh Hoffmann, author of *The Tyranny of Testing*, has a standing offer for test publishers: On any standardized achievement test not concerned merely with trivial facts or routine arithmetical operations, he guarantees that reasonable people will agree that at least 10 percent of the questions are seriously faulty.

He is clearly being conservative: It should not be difficult to find significant faults with 20 percent of standardized test items. Indeed, if one is allowed to object on principle to crowded graphic layout, a separate answer sheet, or the multiple-choice format itself, then the failure rate for test questions themselves can approach 100 percent. But even if only 10 percent are faulty, this constitutes a serious indictment of these tests, since a variation of 10 percent in number of "correct" answers can oftentimes determine whether a child is placed at the top or in the middle of his or her "reference group."

Why are achievement tests so bad? I believe that the primary reason is the test maker's goal of lining up children along a single line by asking, "Who has the higher score?" The inhumane notion that people can and should be compared with one another along

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*It's a long road back
through the looking glass,
but some of us
are starting down it.*

a line is the fundamental error that leads to the looking-glass world of testing and its perversion of our educational system.

This notion also leads to the brainless use of statistics in the development of tests. The standardized test is constructed initially by selecting questions from a large reservoir composed by "item writers." The preliminary version is then tried out with different groups of children, each group large enough to provide "statistically significant" information on whether or not each test item discriminates between children in the way that the test makers wish to discriminate. Typically, a revision of the test is tried out with a large selection of children in order to "standardize" the results for different groups.

The test items that survive this selection process are those that make the "appropriate" discriminations between children and not necessarily those that are logical, correct, or clearly laid out, or that actually test the skills that society holds to be important.

This entire process of test development can in principle take place without any child's sitting down with a sensitive adult to try out the questions and discuss which of the difficulties are important and relevant and which are trivial, irrelevant, or caused by the form or layout of the test itself. Until test makers get a lot closer to real individual children, the children who take their tests have the terrible choice between remaining real (and failing) and becoming part of the test maker's dream (and losing their own reality).

If we know how tests come to *be* as bad as they are, why do they *remain* so bad? I believe that the answer is summarized in one word: *secrecy*. So much time and effort go into trying out each test item with large numbers of children that it becomes a valuable property in its own right. To make such an item public is to destroy its power to compare children with one another. The result is that parents as a group cannot see the tests by which their children are judged. Until parents and teachers can compare notes and seek advice on tests exposed to the light of day, there will be no opportunity for their natural outrage to lead to tests improved in content, humaneness, and connection to the real world.

Back Through the Looking Glass

What shall we make of all this? Shall we laugh or shall we cry? In our outrage shall we demand an end to all achievement testing? Some parents, teachers organizations, and school boards may decide so, and their choice should be respected. Others will continue to feel that children and teachers need to know how well they are doing and that schools need to report to parents and other taxpayers how well children have mastered the skills that society thinks essential to its proper operation. In order to do this task humanely, test development and use must be altered fundamentally.

The first and essential step is to stop comparing one child with other children (so-called "norm-referencing") and instead to try determining whether a child performs the necessary tasks well enough ("criterion referencing"). The best example from the adult world is the automobile driver's test: The driving skills you are expected to demonstrate are not secret, and you either do well enough now or you have to try again later.

Second, test developers must sit down with children individually, watch them take the test, and talk with them afterward about which questions were clear and important and which were confusing or demeaning. The children who try out the tests must be from diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds, both because tests must not discriminate on these bases and also because all children will benefit from the use of tests that are made understandable for as wide a variety of children as possible.

Third, the usefulness of tests must be judged by how soon after completion children and teachers know which answers are in error and what misunderstandings may have resulted in a given incorrect answer.

Fourth, for tests of "practical skills" such as classifying, describing, narrating, measuring, estimating, graphing, mapping, and doing word problems, test makers must show that performance on the test compares with ability to carry out similar tasks in settings as near to real life as possible.

Finally, when skills can be clearly related to test performance, parents, teachers, and administrators must speak for society by deciding what level of performance on each test shall be called "good enough." As a check on this process, tests must be made public, at least after they have been given locally.

It's a long road back through the looking glass, but some of us are starting down it. □

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TESTING *(continued)*

The Way It Is

By **CHARLOTTE DAREHSHORI**

Teacher, Primary Grouping, William Penn Elementary School, Bakersfield, California.

One of the main goals of education is to implement humanistic programs in our schools. Yet incorporated in these programs as one of the evaluative tools is one of the most dehumanizing practices in education—standardized testing.

While most of us talk in terms of individualized approaches, we employ tests that are constructed to compare child with child, class with class, and school with school. We use tests that not only give us a basis for comparing children, but are purposefully built to “fail” a certain percentage of them.

We tell parents not to compare their child with peers or siblings because this could be damaging to the child’s self-concept; we tell children not to compare themselves with others. How then can we justify our practice of using standardized tests that make just such comparisons?

As a teacher, I have found it harder and harder to justify standardized testing philosophically, but it is even more difficult to justify the cruelty of subjecting young children to the act of testing itself.

In giving standardized tests we place children in positions over which they have no control, then we direct them to perform illogical tasks and to act as if everything were perfectly logical.

Taking a standardized test is a bizarre experience for beginning first grade students. Its scenario comes complete with written parts for both teacher and student. For the first time in the children’s school careers—perhaps in their lives—they are interacting with an adult who is reading from a script that dictates what, how, and when he or she will react to them. In this play, which is only too real (its results will follow the children throughout their school careers and influence the way some people think of them), all human needs are put aside when the children and the teacher step into their roles.

The children have had virtually no practice for their role. The teacher, in contrast, carries the script around and reads from it word for word.

Going through this performance begins a dehumanizing process for student and teacher alike: Witness this typical testing scene in a first grade classroom in September 1975.

Meet Melanie, a first grader. She is bright, somewhat shy, but loves school. She has begun to make friends, participates in class activities, and seems to be starting a successful school career.

About the third week of school comes testing day. Melanie walks into her room, where the desks have been

pushed apart and placed in straight rows to prevent the children from seeing each other's papers.

She sits down at her desk. The teacher gives each child a test and a Number 2 pencil and tells the children to work on their own. If they don't know an answer, they are to mark the one they think is best. The test begins.

Melanie has no misgivings about this test. Her teacher has never placed her in a failing situation, so she trusts her completely.

The first item on the test has a picture of a tub. The teacher reads, "Find the letter that has the sound you hear at the end of *tub*."

Melanie begins to feel uneasy. The test looks different from the practice test she had yesterday. There are lots more funny looking letters and arrows and bubbles to mark in.

"Find the letter that has the sound you hear at the end of *tub*," the teacher says again.

Just as Melanie starts to become frightened, she sees that one of the letters has already been marked in.

The teacher reads, "Look at the picture of the *stamp* on the other side of the page. This time listen to the sound you hear at the beginning of *stamp*."

Melanie sees a picture of a stamp. Beside it are three arrows with bubbles. An *st* is beside one of the bubbles; a *cl*, beside another; and a *bl*, beside the last.

Her stomach begins to feel funny; she holds the pencil more tightly.

The teacher goes on, "You should have marked the *s-t*. You hear the sound that *s-t* makes at the beginning of *stamp*. You do not hear *c-l* or *b-l*. You should not have marked these."

The teacher's aide is walking around the room looking at papers. She comes to Melanie. "Melanie, do you understand how to mark your answers?"

Melanie looks up at the aide. "I know I'm supposed to mark in one of these circles. We did that yesterday, but I can't tell which one to mark."

"Just take a good guess and go on."

"But, I don't know, I can't read yet."

The aide pats her on the shoulder, "Just do the best you can."

The teacher goes on, "We are ready to begin. If you do not understand what you are to do, raise your hand. If you are not sure of an answer, mark the one that you think is right. If you change your answer, erase the wrong one. If you want me to repeat any question, raise your hand."

By this time, Melanie and most of the other children are so confused by the maze of instructions, they can't even formulate a question.

Since no one raises a hand, the teacher continues, "First we are going to listen for sounds at the end of words. Is everyone ready for Number 1? Look at the picture of the *drum*. . . Mark your answer."

Melanie stares at her paper. She doesn't know what the teacher is asking her to do. She looks around, feeling panic. Since many of the children now have their hands up, she puts hers up. The aide finishes with one of the other children and comes to her side. "I don't know what to do," Melanie whispers, tears in her eyes. The aide can

only repeat what the teacher has said.

The teacher goes through 21 more items, including ones in which the children have to be able to distinguish between *e*, *u*, and *i* as the sound heard in the middle of *fist*, and *u*, *o*, or *e* as the sound heard in the middle of *rug*.

Everyone greets recess with cheers. The children are exhausted; the aide and the teacher are exhausted.

After recess, the children come back into class and see the test booklets still on their desks. They groan and protest. The teacher gets them settled down and begins the routine again.

In a situation like the one above, children tend to feel that they are failures; they never suspect that something may be wrong with the test. The teacher, too, is a victim in this testing process, because he or she is made to feel that any problem in carrying out the test is caused by the way he or she has administered it. According to the testing manual, "the teacher or examiner who makes the announcement should guard against arousing anxiety in the students."

During testing week some children remove themselves from the intolerable situation by either "playing sick" or actually becoming sick.

On the second day of testing, Melanie did not want to come to school, but her mother felt it was important for her to go and "not get in the habit of staying home just because something she didn't like was happening." In this way Melanie's mother, like many other parents, helped to support the practice of testing, feeling that it is a necessary evil. The parent thus joins with the school in further convincing the child that something is wrong with the child, not with the test.

Melanie, however, had an asthma attack during the math portion of this test and got to go home anyway. During the rest of the year, she was frequently absent and very reluctant to try new tasks.

In the second grade, the same pattern continued. Melanie's experiences with testing seem to have changed what started as a positive school experience into a negative one.

Unfortunately, this student is not unique. Two or three days of testing frequently damage the self-esteem of many first graders. It is hard to overstate the negative impact of this test on young children.

Other children deal with standardized testing by not really trying, by just marking answers and going through the motions. On the reading comprehension part of the test given above, the children were required to read sentences such as "The prince took a drink and changed into a frog." Only two children in this class were able to read at all.

The children were given 15 minutes for this part of the test. Most went through it marking any bubble that struck their fancy and finished the test in two or three minutes. Some made nice designs with the bubbles. Only the two little boys who could read took more

than five minutes for the test. One of them became frustrated because the teacher wouldn't help him with a word, so he put his head down on his desk and refused to finish the test.

The effects of tests on children are tragic and cruel. The vicious cycle of labeling and testing follows children throughout their school experiences, influencing both teacher and parental attitudes toward them—and, what is worse, their attitudes toward themselves.

Much has been written about the effects of testing on teachers' attitudes toward students. We must now contend with a third party in this unhealthy situation. Federal and state programs require increased parent participation, so parents have access to information which they might not otherwise be aware of.

Usually parents whose child has low scores believe either the child or the school is failing.

Teachers who know the limitations of these scores are reluctant to tell parents a first or second grade child is ranked "below average." Providing this information to the parent only perpetuates the labeling of young children. We must question, however, any use whatsoever of a score that is so tainted that we wish to withhold it from a child's parents. If a score is that misleading and damaging in its effects, we must examine the wisdom of even having it available.

We must also question the educational soundness of writing objectives based on raising scores on standardized tests. Suppose a school gets government money for a program to bring all students' scores that are in the lower two quartiles up to the upper two. The tests are constructed, however, to obtain a certain distribution of scores among all four quartiles. The two lower quartiles will by definition always contain a certain proportion of students' scores, so the programs are destined to fall short of their objectives.

It is difficult for a teacher to have worked hard all year only to get the results of standardized tests and find that, technically, the teacher and class both have failed. This year nearly every child in our school is in the lower two quartiles in reading or math or both. Since the main goal of the program at our school is to bring these children into the two top quartiles, the program has failed.

The teachers and staff of our school can accept this failure intellectually because we feel it is only a "paper failure." Emotionally, however, we become frustrated when faced with a list of scores that says our students are failing academically.

These tests also negatively affect the programs that they evaluate. In schools where the staff is professional and secure, the influence of these tests is minimal as the staff tries to keep the children's needs in mind and teach to these needs, not to the tests. Even so, the need

to compare skills achievement with that in other schools gives the tests influence. Because evaluation techniques and standardized tests have not kept pace with curriculum development and theories of child development, that influence is regressive.

In other schools, the situation is worse. At one school where I taught, great emphasis was placed on the test results. Predictably, teachers did everything possible to improve the test scores. Since the only two areas evaluated on the test were math and reading, teachers concentrated on these two areas almost to the exclusion of art, social studies, and music. Recess and lunch time were cut down in order to give more instructional time in math and reading. Testing was manipulated to make the pretest scores lower than the posttest scores. For pretesting, all the tests were given in one day, on a Monday; for posttesting, they were given at a more leisurely pace on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday—days when the children were usually more settled.

Tests and work sheets covering the material on the test finally came to be the curriculum at the school. The pressure to look good on tests brought about wide fluctuations in students' test scores—gains of two or three years one year and regression the next.

It seems, then, that little of value is derived from these tests, other than using the scores as criteria for deciding which schools will get federal money for new programs. (Why not throw darts?)

To student, teacher, and parent, the tests are equally devastating. One teacher at William Penn put it very succinctly, "How do standardized tests help me in the classroom? Well, they helped three children ruin their pants and one child have an asthma attack."

Teachers have talked about the damaging effects of standardized tests for years. Perhaps if they refused to give the tests, changes and reforms would result.

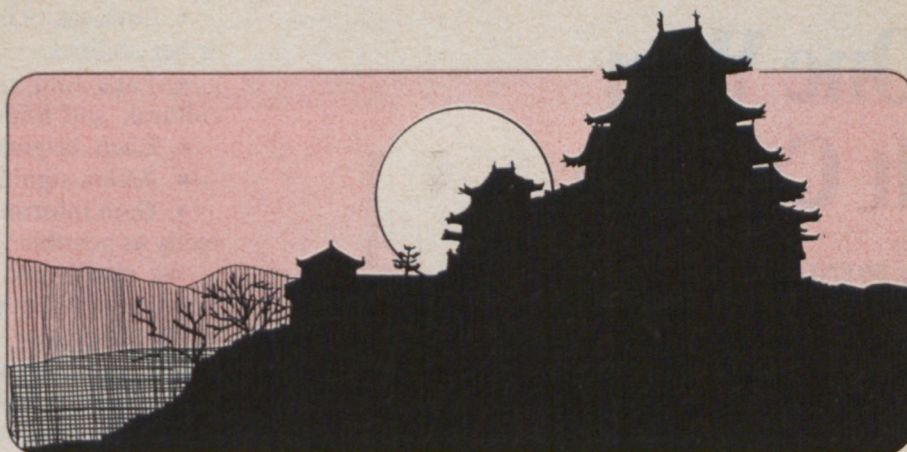
One immediate change could be to exclude children from standardized testing until they actually have the skills that these tests are supposed to be testing. Teachers could use their judgment to decide who should take the tests.

Because these tests are not diagnostic and are supposed to be more valid (although this, too, is questionable) for a group than for an individual, test results should not be linked with an individual student but only with a group.

On a long-term basis, test manufacturers should design tests based on the developmental levels of young children—not adults. In curriculum we realized years ago that the child is a unique kind of being and not just a smaller version of a grown-up. Merely updating the old model of the standardized test as testing companies have done in the past and continue to do is not enough. □

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NEA ...We're listening.

TESTING (Continued)

One Way It Can Be

By **BRENDA S. ENGEL**

Visiting Assistant Professor, Lesley College, Cambridge, Massachusetts; Former Public School Art Teacher.

Until the spring of 1976, the Cambridge Alternative Public School, then in its fourth year, had generally avoided administering the standardized tests ordinarily required of Cambridge public schools. At that time, however, pressure from the school department was increasing; the assistant superintendent for elementary education felt that he needed concrete evidence of the quality of the education offered at the school.

With parent support, the school had taken an anti-testing position (similar, on several points, to that taken by the NEA). The school felt that scheduling standardized tests disrupted the educational process, that the tests made many children anxious, that the tests penalized minority children, and that their influence on teaching and the curriculum could be disastrous for an innovative school. But the school community (teachers, administration, and parents) also had a strong interest in carrying out some form of evaluation in order to corroborate their confidence in the school. So much for the situation.

At this point, at the request of a parent-staff committee, I was employed as an independent consultant to try out some means of evaluation that might be satisfactory to both the school community and the school department.

We settled on the third grade for the alternative evaluation, because it was a well-balanced class in regard to age, sex, and race. Four teachers would be directly involved since the 29 children in the grade were fairly evenly divided among four classrooms (each contained mixed ages). Most of the children involved had been in the school from its inception.

In order to keep the size of the undertaking manageable during the first experimental year, we identified three areas of the curriculum for assessment—math, reading, and art—and proceeded to make an overall plan, to outline an implementation schedule, and to design the actual instruments of evaluation.

The evaluation was to be carried out over a five-week period toward the end of the school year. We

hoped the instruments of evaluation would do the following:

- Give each child various ways to demonstrate his or her abilities.
- Take into consideration the varied economic, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds of the children.
- Elicit original responses and creative thinking.
- Assess significant aspects of education.
- Gain information about children's learning as directly as possible.

We also hoped that the evaluation would cause a minimum of disruption in the school and that it would not be a negative experience for the children. The actual work of the assessment was to be shared among a number of people with different jobs in the school or with different relationships to it.

When the evaluation was completed, we hoped to present a report in clear, readable, and usable form. We planned to make it more descriptive than judgmental, both noncomparative and nonnumerical, and useful to teachers as well as informative to administrators and parents.

The matrix shown in the figure accompanying this article describes *what* we intended to assess and *how* we intended to do it. The Areas To Be Assessed are listed across the top and the Means of Assessment down the lefthand side. Teacher statements led the list of Means of Assessment. Each teacher gave opinions (which we determined through lengthy interviews) of each child's progress in each area of learning: his or her understanding of the decimal system, sense of estimation and of probability, and so on across the matrix, ending with the child's ability to solve original problems.

The teacher statements began the evaluation process and supplied the guidelines, in both content and approach, for conducting the rest of the assessment. The teachers' opinions of each child's ability in each curriculum area set the stage for what followed, particularly for our observations of, and interviews with, the children.

The second Means of Assessment—classroom observations—was necessarily open-ended and directed more toward quality of work and involvement than toward skills. An observer spent about half a day in each of the four classrooms, focusing particularly on the third graders and recording the observations in anecdotal form.

A parent committee drew up and distributed parent questionnaires, the third item in the Means column. The areas checked on the matrix represent only some of the subjects covered in the questionnaires; other subjects were matters of general interest to the school and were not part of the assessment.

The oral and written tests were made up specifically

		AREAS TO BE ASSESSED																												
		AREAS OF LEARNING/ CHARACTERISTICS OF LEARNING																												
		decimal system	estimation	probability & statistics	measurements (inc. time)	ratio/mapping	shapes	computation (inc. fractions)	graphic representation	classification & sets	math problem solving	symmetry & balance	feelings towards math	relation of performance to understanding	how much	where (home &/or school)	kinds	feelings about reading	degree of difficulty	understanding, vocabulary	fluency	how much	where (home &/or school)	what kinds	feelings about art	knowledge of techniques	developmental level	originality & imagination	problem solving, autonomous thinking	
NOTES																														
MEANS OF ASSESSMENT		MATH													READING						ART									
Teachers' statements		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Classroom observations		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	✓	•	•		•	✓	•	•	•	•	•		•	✓	•	•	•	•
Current questionnaires			✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓
Oral tests		✓	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓	✓		✓					✓	✓	✓								•	
Written tests			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓					✓	✓							✓	•	✓	
Evidence, work samples		✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	•				✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	•		✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Previous test results School records		✓			✓		•	✓		•				✓					✓	✓										
Child interviews		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			•	

for the occasions (i.e., nonstandardized). They were to inventory the children's abilities in the specified areas as simply as possible.

Following is an example from such a test. It was designed to measure children's ability to estimate as part of the mathematical skills assessed on the matrix.

About how much does your teacher weigh?

Which do you think weighs more, a bicycle or a horse?

About how long is your thumb?

About how high is the ceiling in this room?

About how long does it take you to brush your teeth?

About how long will it be before you are a grown-up?

About how long is summer vacation?

About how many children are there in this school?

About how many pieces of bread are there in a loaf?

Classroom teachers, with the help of graduate students, gathered the next items on the list—collection of work samples (current), previous test results, and summaries of school records.

Finally, when all these data were assembled in folders, we conducted an interview with each child to fill in any gaps in the information and clear up possible ambiguities or contradictions.

Most important, each area of learning was examined in a variety of ways designed to cross-check each other. No judgments were made on the basis of a single means or single occasion.

Another central and challenging consideration was the form of the final report, which had to be designed for the requirements of widely different constituencies: the school department, school administration, teachers, parents, and children.

The school department was interested in a concise statement focused mainly on skills. Parents, although they varied in their expectations of the evaluations (some looking for cognitive; others, affective assessment), were primarily interested in detailed reports on their own children. Teachers were looking for confirmation of their own perceptions, for further insights, and for implications for the curriculum. The school administration shared all these interests. The children themselves, if they were at all aware of the nature of the process, were looking for personal reassurance.

Our reporting system had three parts: a summary sheet for each child, a key (with school department expectations, *not norms*, underlined), and documentation (folders containing results of, or notes on, all the Means of Assessment). By glancing at only the summary sheet, one could gain a general impression of achievement; one could read the summary sheet in detail, using the key to identify specific skills; or one could scrutinize the actual evidence on which the summary sheet was based.

It would be misleading to suggest that all of this does not add up to a substantial amount of work. Having gone through this process once, however, those of us involved now believe that the same approach could be carried out in a variety of ways and over differing lengths of time.

A teacher, or group of teachers, could custom design his or her own matrix, listing the subject matter to be assessed across the top (as in the figure) and the

feasible means of assessment down the lefthand column. The matrix itself, once it has been filled out, can provide the framework for the assessment process. For instance, one might limit the means to teacher statements, parent questionnaires, written tests, and work samples. Similarly, one could limit the areas to be scrutinized. (It is important, however, to assess each area in at least three ways.) Later, then, when the time comes to write a test or plan a questionnaire, one has only to look across the horizontal row from a particular means to identify its content. Classroom teachers can formulate the specific questions to be asked without much difficulty.

After the scheduled information has been collected for each child, the teacher can fill in a report for each child, viewing the assessment as a more-than-adequate substitute for the usual reports and tests—not as an addition to them.

How to assess the assessment in relation to our expectations? At this point, it is important to reemphasize that the purpose of this alternative evaluation was to compile as informative and as comprehensive a picture of each child's abilities and skills as possible—not to compare children's achievements or rates of growth with those of other children. In this context, the findings have promise.

The children, by their own accounts during their interviews, seemed to enjoy the process, which was neither seriously interruptive nor damaging. With the additional specific information about each student gained from the assessment, teachers felt that they could do a better job of individualizing the educational program for each child. Perhaps most important, the assessment itself did not violate the educational climate we were trying to protect and to which we were committed. □

TESTING *(Continued)*

Teacher-Made Tests —an alternative to standardized tests

Developing tests for classroom use is a routine activity for most teachers. These tests, a form of the criterion-referenced type, serve the needs of both the student and teacher. They disclose where the student stands in relation to classroom objectives and guide the teacher in providing the student with appropriate help. Because of the information that tests can offer, they should be developed carefully rather than “off-the-top-of-the-head.”

What are some elements that can make teacher-developed tests effective? How can teachers be certain

that a test will reveal the kinds of information they want?

Some teachers and test developers have found the following procedures to be of value.

The teacher should decide the purpose of giving the test and know how the results will be used. A teacher can give a test to determine a group's strengths and weaknesses or to measure a class's or an individual student's knowledge of subject matter. The teacher can give the test upon first meeting a class, before introducing a unit of study, or after completing a unit or course. A test can be a reinforcement activity or an instructional device, or it can be the "every-Friday" test which helps students and instructor to monitor progress in an orderly fashion. It can help the teacher identify the students who need special help and the areas in which they need the help. It can also be a means of observing special talents.

A first step in preparing a test is listing the kinds of information to elicit and then deciding on the best format for getting that information. The format can be essay, problem solving, computational, application of information in new situations, multiple-choice, or a combination of these. The format of a test is determined by the subject area, the kinds of information needed, and the amount of time allotted for the test. The teacher should decide what number or percentage of questions to put in each category.

Multiple-choice questions are difficult to develop, so they take the most time prior to administering the test. Essay questions take less time to develop, but much more time to evaluate.

Just as variety is necessary in classroom activity, so it is necessary in tests. Therefore, teachers will want to include some items that students can work through quickly and others that they will work on for somewhat longer periods of time.

If reading comprehension or other reading abilities are not being tested, then written questions and problems, including directions, should be easy enough for all students to understand, or else teachers should give directions orally.

Generally teachers like the challenge of creating new problems. Good tests are not simple to construct, however. Teachers should save effective items or exercises from year to year. In that case, they should review the items before using them to be sure that all the areas they deal with have been covered in class. Whether test items are newly constructed or taken from a previous test, the person who developed the test or another instructor should take the test to be sure it is fair in presentation and content.

Test items may be confusing or ambiguous; reviewing the corrected tests will help teachers to discover weaknesses.

Teachers should not construct questions to stump, catch, or confuse, but should state them as clearly as possible. In a multiple-choice sequence, the right and wrong answers should not be too close in meaning. A "distractor"—the wrong multiple-choice answer—should not be the correct answer to another question, because this may confuse students. Tests should help students clarify their thinking—not confuse it.

For essay questions, teachers would be wise to devise a key or scoring guide that they can use for both commenting and assessing. They can assign weights to such factors as organization of topic, description, and grammar. They should use the key consistently. Teachers of subjects like science or sociology must be consistent, too, in the weight they give punctuation and grammar in evaluating their tests.

True-false tests, which supposedly measure students' command of facts, are the simplest to construct. They should not be used as a major basis for judgments about progress because chance—and guessing—affect their results. Teachers have argued that some credit should be given for items not answered on true-false tests, since these can give the teacher a truer picture of the group's knowledge.

Here are additional suggestions that can be useful in constructing tests:

- In a true-false test, about one-fourth of the items should be false. Students are afraid to trust their own judgment when too many are false.
- Items should be arranged from easy to hard so that the beginning of the test will give students confidence.
- The first and last items of a test should concern an obvious, mainstream topic so that students will leave the test feeling satisfied.
- Questions should be worded in the positive, and positive and negative questions should not be combined in the same section of the test. After a series of positive questions, students have trouble answering those worded in the negative because the mental shift is tricky.

In an effort to depart from the old-fashioned true-false, multiple-choice exercises, teachers may want to prepare items that stretch the students' imagination. Teachers can prepare exercises that allow students to estimate "how far," "how many," "what kinds of," and the like. Students enjoy and can benefit from exercises which allow them to make inferences, such as "What effects will be felt in the community as a result of (such and such) court case (decision)?"

Creativity in test-making is an art. The artfulness does improve with practice, and the improvement can benefit both student and teacher alike.

—**Frances Quinto**, *NEA Instructional and Professional Development*.

A Summary of Alternatives

In a final report to the NEA Representative Assembly, the NEA Task Force on Testing recommended that alternatives to group standardized testing be developed. In keeping with that recommendation, the following brief descriptions of alternatives are presented. (These have served as a basis for a larger group of alternatives researched and developed more fully by the NEA.)

Anecdotal Records

Recording the behaviors of individual students reveals more about a student than do test results. A teacher can develop a composite picture of a student by observing and recording behavior such as interaction with others, motivational patterns, and independent work habits.

Teachers who have set about keeping anecdotal records report that not only is the experience satisfying for them, but that they improve with practice and constantly get new insights into a student that either support or explain other evaluation results.

Oral Presentations by Students

Students' oral presentations have long been accepted as one way to evaluate student progress. For example, skilled reading teachers use them both in evaluating student progress and in diagnosing specific difficulties. Subject matter teachers can assess both depth of knowledge and personal capabilities using this mode of performance.

In assigning oral presentations to students, teachers must state clearly beforehand what is expected of the students and what are the criteria for a good performance. The structure offers the opportunity for self- and peer evaluation, particularly when oral presentations are recorded.

Contracts with Students

A contract or agreement between student and instructor specifies tasks that both parties must complete within a given period of time. An instructor carefully poses problems with varying degrees of difficulty, and students, with teacher guidance, select both the problems they will work on and the amount of time they will spend on them. Ability to perform the tasks is measured by promptness and accuracy in complet-

ing the contract items. Requiring students to work alone, as contracts generally do, adds to an instructor's understanding of a student's academic and personal development.

Student Self- and Peer Evaluation

Students can be, and ought to be, involved in evaluating their own work. The ability to assess one's performance is useful in ways that transcend school learning. Students can become more insightful about themselves and their approach to work.

Self- and peer assessment is complex, particularly when more than simple student products are being judged. When expressing subjective judgments, students tend to underrate rather than overrate their own abilities and achievements. Because of this, some background and skill on the part of teachers is required in dealing with sensitive affective areas and development of self-concepts. Many well-developed approaches exist for such purposes.

Parent-Teacher Conferences

The purposes of most parent-teacher conferences are for the parties to exchange information about a student that will help to guide him or her into productive channels and to find ways in which he or she can secure satisfaction and growth. These conferences are valuable when there is thoughtful preparation and when they are used as a supplement to written evaluations. They also offer an excellent opportunity to relate schooling to the home—a necessary adjunct for a vast majority of students.

Objectives-Referenced (Criterion-Referenced) Tests

The potential advantage of these tests over standardized tests is that students are judged on their mastery of objectives rather than on their standing in relation to others. In this way, they serve some diagnostic purposes. At this time, these tests have not had wide enough use to confirm fully their value, particularly when broad subject areas must be considered. If the original intention of criterion-referenced tests is not distorted, they have great potential as an alternative to standardized tests.

Individual Diagnostic Tests

These sophisticated evaluation devices are reliable and valid for specific purposes. They are underused because administering them is frequently time-consuming and expensive. Also applying, scoring, and analyzing individual diagnostic tests often requires special training that is generally not available to teachers.

Nevertheless, these tests have the potential of providing additional information the teacher can use in prescribing learning strategies for a student.

Teacher-Made Tests

Good examples of objectives-referenced tests are those constructed by teachers for their own use. These can closely reflect the content and emphasis of classroom subject matter, and teachers can use the results in making decisions that are as diverse as the pace of instruction; prescriptive assignments; reporting to or conferring with parents; and promoting or retaining a student. This broad range of decisions requires that teachers be familiar with methods of constructing classroom tests which will measure both factual knowledge and higher levels of thinking. [Teacher-made tests are discussed in more depth in the preceding article.]

School Letter Grades

Conventional grading systems of A, B, C, D, or E or equivalent designations (percentages/averages) are, for the most part, understandable to parents and acceptable to students. Giving grades can be particularly valuable when teachers use descriptions to expand and to clarify the meaning of the grades. Even such limited descriptors as *excellent*, *satisfactory*, and *needs improvement* may be more useful to parents and students than the standardized test statistic of "10 standard score points above the mean."

Open Admissions

In a strict sense, the policy of open admissions is not an alternative to testing but a practice that indicates change in college requirements. It could eliminate the need for standardized tests.

Many institutions of higher education now accept all students who have completed high school; they give no consideration to scholastic-aptitude or achievement tests. Some universities admit fourth year high school students into their freshman classes upon the recommendation of high school teachers. Adult education and life-long learning programs provide access to degree-granting programs for working people. Combinations and variations of the above offer opportunities which in the past would have been highly unusual if not totally unacceptable.

The criterion for admission to these schools is the desire to be educated rather than the score achieved on a standardized test.

The full story is not yet in on the success of these programs, but the concept of openness provides for more equitable educational opportunities for all. This holds true for other levels of schooling. □

NEA Resolution on Standardized Tests

76-65. The National Education Association strongly encourages the elimination of group standardized intelligence, aptitude, and achievement tests.

Helping Readers To Visualize

By MARILYN DUFF

English Teacher, Troy High School, Fullerton, California.

Mike has been trying to read. He really has. The classroom is quiet, the temperature is thermostatically controlled, and the lighting is "approved standard." The book opened before him on the desk is *To Kill a Mockingbird*, carefully chosen for sophomores of median reading ability like him. Despite all of this, Mike fidgets. He looks around at his friends, all bent determinedly over their pages. He stretches, leans back, yawns noisily.

"What's the problem, Mike?" you ask.

"Why do we have to read this dumb book?" he blurts out. "It's boring!"

The heads come up.

"Yeah," comes the chorus of agreement. "Why can't we ever read something good?"

"Why don't we ever have movies?" Greg chimes in, forgetting that they've had three this year.

You sigh. Here it is again. The impatience with the printed page, the restlessness over words, the hostility toward books that have no pictures.

Why aren't they caught up in the conflicts and the action? How can they miss the vivid characters? Why can't they see these things?

The answer is that they have never been taught. Or, rather, that they have learned how to see but not how to make pictures in their heads. They are the generation stunted by too many pictures, always available at the twist of a dial.

From *Captain Kangaroo* to Ko-

jak they have learned to lean back and watch the pictures. They do not believe that words make pictures.

Their parents and grandparents had the knack, developed over copies of *Tom Swift* and *The Rover Boys*. Radio, which demanded that they make their own pictures, further nurtured their ability. Lying on the carpet in front of the Philco, listening to *Jack Armstrong, the All-American Boy*, they easily made the leap from words to pictures. Sound effects, voice inflection, dramatic interpretation—all these stimulated them daily, with no pictures to distract them from visualizing for themselves.

Getting the stunted generation to read is a matter of giving them this skill. We must do whatever is necessary to help them set the scene, envision the action, or see the faces. Whether we like it or not, as English teachers we are competing with television. And once students are convinced that the book is, indeed, full of pictures, they will enjoy it. They may also come to appreciate what television can never give them: the richness of language on a printed page.

But what works? What can we do to help the high school reader see?

- *Set the scene with pictures.* Start a collection of pictures that relate to books you plan to teach. Magazines, art books, or personal photograph collections are sources.

Bring books to life by showing pictures before the reading starts: an old whaling ship introduces

Moby Dick, a snowy New England village sets the scene for *Ethan Frome*, a gaudy mansion prepares the class for Gatsby's ostentatiousness, an early Puritan settlement illustrates the opening of *The Scarlet Letter*, a raft on the lazy Mississippi puts them there with Huckleberry Finn, and a spooky house becomes Boo Radley's home in *To Kill a Mockingbird*.

Hold the picture up, discuss it, then pass it around the class for inspection. Get students to tell you what they already know about it: What would it feel like to be snowed in in this little village? Have you ever been on a raft? Is there a spooky house in your neighborhood?

- *Pique their curiosity with objects.* Show students a candle in a holder that Zeena Frome might have carried through the darkened old farmhouse or bring to class a tattered straw hat like the one Huck might have worn and talk about the life-style it suggests.

Make a collection of models with the help of your students. Give extra credit for faithful reproductions of Huck's raft, the scaffold and pillory where Hester Prynne was punished, or a model of a 1920's limousine that might have been Gatsby's. Then store these away for future years when you can use them to introduce the books.

I have in my collection a richly embroidered, velvet scarlet letter that a senior girl made in home economics, and it is very effective in introducing Hawthorne's novel.

Another student, after reading *A Tale of Two Cities*, made a one-foot-tall replica of a guillotine. Sub-

sequently, when I have used it to introduce the book, I have watched the horror of the French Revolution come alive in the students' eyes, and they settle down to read with interest.

- *Role play the situation.* I recently started teaching *Silas Marner* again, despite the fact that it is considered "too difficult" or "too irrelevant" for today's sophomores. But role playing helps students overcome the Victorian prose and relate to the story.

For instance, ask two boys to play a father and a son. Give them the situation: The son is waiting at the breakfast table for Dad to come downstairs. Son has wrecked the family car the night before and must now confess.

Let them have fun with the situation, but caution them against roughhousing and encourage them to verbalize. Then ask them to turn to the chapter in *Silas Marner* called "The Squire Loses His Temper," in which Godfrey Cass must confess that Wildfire, the best horse in the stable, has been killed through his negligence. The parallels between past and present will fascinate them.

- *Show them the characters.* Sometimes you must be willing to be an actor as well as a teacher in order to help them visualize. Just a tilt of your chin and a lowering of your eyelids will bring the hauteur of Jordan Baker in *The Great Gatsby* vividly alive:

"She was extended full length at her end of the divan, completely motionless, and with her chin raised a little, as if she were balancing something on it which was quite likely to fall."

If a passage says, "He tapped his fingertips together thoughtfully," don't assume that they see it. Make a steeple of your fingertips, muse with your eyes. A "furrowed brow" or a "slack jaw" may be something they cannot see. You may have to help them.

- *Let them hear the sounds.*

*"I missed all that, Mrs. Duff.
Where did you see it?"*

Dialogue between two characters can lie cold and dead on a page unless it is read with expression. Choose an exchange that calls for voice inflection, facial expression, or dialect. Then read it for them, emphasizing the importance of commas, question marks, exclamation points, italics, and descriptive adverbs. It is important that they follow along in their books.

If some students in the class enjoy dramatic reading and do it well, have them make a script from the text and read it to their classmates, making sure that everyone has a copy. Help them with the more difficult adverbs like *incredulously*, *sarcastically*, or *haltingly*. You hear them automatically, in your head, but your students may not.

- *Relate their experience to the literature.* Start a class with a discussion that relates to the story to come—before the students know the assignment. A simple question can get them going. "Has anyone ever had a dog that was a real character?" Encourage as much sharing as you can get, letting them all have time to tell what is special about their pets. Then ask them to read James Thurber's "Snapshot of a Dog." Without realizing it, they will begin to read for comparison and they will be making plenty of vivid pictures.

Situation similes are also effective. "Have you ever been the center of attention, when all eyes were on you and you wanted to melt through the floor?" you might ask. Let them share their experiences. Then introduce the opening scene of *The Scarlet Letter*, with Hester in her "ignominy" on the scaffold, the

object of all stares.

- *Update the language.* Teachers are often squeamish about using slang terms in class, perhaps because they feel they should expose students to a "purer" form of language than they hear elsewhere. But television writers, producers, and directors do not share our squeamishness. Consequently, students may feel that television is real while literature is not.

Slang synonyms can help readers see relationships and action that they might otherwise miss. For instance, a *sycophant* or one who is *obsequious* is—vulgarily—a present-day "kiss-up." In *Silas Marner*, Godfrey's unfortunate first wife, Molly, was addicted to laudanum. In current parlance, she is a "doper" or a "loadie," who dies of an overdose.

Because slang is continually changing and differs with geographical location, its use takes forethought and research to eliminate unwanted connotation or ambiguity. But if the teacher is comfortable with the technique, it is a surefire attention getter. And it can spark discussion of the sameness of human behavior and experience through the ages.

Often I have had students start to read cold, without any of these picturing techniques. Then we stop, go back to the beginning, and using one or all of the methods described, we begin to visualize together.

Many times someone will confess, "I missed all that, Mrs. Duff. Where did you see it?"

The answer is simple. "In my head, Mike, in my head." □

By **ALFRED M. BLOCH, M.D.**
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Los Angeles.*

In December 1974, John S., a 41-year-old teacher, entered the sound and control booth of an inner-city high school auditorium. As he closed the door, he confronted two male students who had been cutting the power lines and smashing electrical equipment. One of the students fled; the other began beating Mr. S. with his fists. When the student who had fled returned, he held John S., while the other grabbed a chair and began battering the teacher's head and shoulders. Mr. S's screams were unheard. The battering continued, and John S. finally lost consciousness.

During the 1975-76 school year, NEA estimates that some 63,000 classroom teachers were physically attacked by students. In a survey of incidents on public school property, the Senate Juvenile Delinquency Subcommittee reports that between 1970 and 1973 murders increased 19 percent; rapes, 40 percent; robberies, 37 percent; and assaults on teachers, 77 percent. This year, as in recent years, thousands of teachers will be threatened, harassed, and physically assaulted on campus. They will become aware of their personal danger and vulnerability. They will become fearful and develop stress-related symptoms that will affect them psychologically and physically.

Between 1971 and 1976, I evaluated 250 classroom teachers (and treated some of them) who had symptoms of either physical trauma

and/or prolonged psychic stress. They were referred to me by other physicians, attorneys seeking workmen's compensation for their clients, and fellow teachers. Most of them did not return to campus; they are on disability as a result of the physical and/or mental harassment they suffered on their jobs.

These teachers, White, Black, Mexican American, Asian American, had all taught in inner-city schools within the Los Angeles Unified School District for periods of time ranging from two months to 14 years. All had experienced, on campus, the physical and psychic trauma of beatings; assaults with weapons; or continued harassment and threats of violence from students, parents, and vagrants. All presented symptoms of anxiety, fear, and depression. Many presented psychophysiological manifestations of prolonged stress (e.g., migraine headaches, ulcers, hypertension).

Many of the psychological symptoms of these teachers were similar to those of people who have suffered from "combat neurosis" and of survivors of war disasters (e.g., emotional tension, anxiety, insecurity, nightmares, excessive startle response, phobias, cognitive impairment, blurred vision, dizziness, fatigue, and irri-

The Battered Teacher

tability). Their physical symptoms, also similar to those of combat neurosis, ranged from headaches and skin disorders to peptic ulcers, hypertension, and respiratory problems.

The teachers who have presented symptoms comparable to combat neurosis are the battered teachers of this report. Ironically, during interviews, many referred to their schools as "battle zones."

The following three case studies from the group of teachers I treated illustrate reactions to traumatic events and the effects of prolonged stress. After a teacher has been physically attacked or repeatedly threatened, he or she develops fear and anxiety. When this state is prolonged or aggravated and the school administrators offer little or no support or protection to the teacher, the teacher experiences psychological and physical depletion and ultimately collapses.

Case 1. Howard K., a 47-year-old teacher, had been assigned to an inner-city high school between 1960 and 1974. He had been physically well and had enjoyed his work until about the eighth year of his assignment, when, he said, school morale and discipline deteriorated and campus violence and vandalism increased markedly.

Despite the danger of trying to stop heated disputes on campus, Mr. K., who believed that personal risks were secondary to maintaining order, intervened in fights. On one occasion when he tried to stop a fight, participants and onlookers as well severely beat him. Subsequently, he became the target of several physical assaults by students, some of whom were members of juvenile gangs. Then, when Mr. K. attempted to prevent a stu-

dent from stealing school equipment, the student drew a knife and threatened to kill him. Mr. K. reported the boy to the administrative office. The student was suspended from school for three days. When he returned, he renewed his threats to murder Mr. K.

A few weeks later, Mr. K. was surprised to find a door to the auditorium unlocked after school hours. As he opened the door, a metal chair and desk came crashing down from the balcony and missed him by inches. An investigation revealed that a booby trap had been set to be activated when that door opened.

Approximately six years ago, Mr. K. was depressed and "moody." He became easily fatigued and had difficulty climbing stairs without experiencing pain in his leg. His physician diagnosed the pain as "psychological." The pain worsened, and Mr. K. began to experience severe leg pain after walking short distances. When the pain increased to a level he described as "intolerable," he consulted another physician, who diagnosed the problem as atherosclerosis of the major arteries of his legs, a stress-related disease. A surgical replacement of these atherosclerotic vessels with Teflon "arteries" was performed with good results.

Mr. K. sustained his last beating from a student in February 1974. Despite continued requests for transfer to another school, he was not given a new assignment. There was no exit!

To date, he continues to suffer psychological symptoms of depression (e.g., fatigue, nightmares and insomnia, damaged self-esteem, irritability). He is unable to function in many capacities. He has not returned to teaching.

Case 2. I evaluated Ms. R., a 31-year-old high school teacher, in November 1975. She was hospitalized in December 1975 after a suicide attempt.

She had successfully taught continuation classes for six years in Northern California, because, she said, the school administrator had given teachers strong support and had protected the staff. When a knife-wielding student threatened to "cut up" her face in 1972, she was able to escape and to run for help. The administrator handled the situation so well that she sustained little or no psychological sequelae from this trauma and returned to school the next day.

When she began teaching at a Los Angeles inner-city school, however, her classroom and facilities, designed to accommodate 22 students, had an enrollment of 30. Within weeks, her class enrollment had swelled to 56. Many of these were "problem" students.

Students in her class harassed and threatened her. She saw violence directed toward other teachers at this school. Although she reported only the threats that were directed toward her to the school administration, she was offered neither psychological support nor physical protection. All requests to reduce her class size or provide additional personnel or facilities were ignored or denied.

The patient became progressively more anxious and depressed. After completing two months of this teaching assignment, she was passing out report cards when a group of female students, angry about their low grades and recorded absences, gathered around her and set her hair on fire. Others present in the room helped put out the fire. Afterward, when she attempted to report this incident to the school principal, she was criticized for leaving the classroom and for not maintaining discipline among her students. In addition, she was instructed not to discuss the assault with her fellow teachers. She became agitated, anxious, and severely depressed. She has been unable to return to teaching.

Case 3. Mr. F., 29 years old,

was a high school teacher who was popular among the students. On an especially hot and humid afternoon, he held his afternoon class outside on the campus lawn in the shade. During the class, three males, none of whom were students at the school, walked into the circle of students. Mr. F. asked, "May I help you?" Without responding, the three grabbed Mr. F., threw him on his back, and then kicked and beat him until he lost consciousness.

Mr. F. was treated at the hospital for facial, mouth, and gum lacerations. Some of his teeth had been knocked loose. When told of the incident by telephone, the principal advised Mr. F. to return to class the next day to "show the students that violence had not won."

Since this assault, Mr. F. has developed many physical complaints and experiences episodes of anxiety and paranoia. He has nightmares and suffers from fatigue. Formerly an "all around" college athlete, he was a dedicated and idealistic teacher, and though he has not left the profession, he is actively seeking alternative employment.

Case 1 illustrates the effects of physical trauma and prolonged stress on a teacher who experienced a psychological and psychophysiological breakdown. Case 2 illustrates a more acute psychological breakdown as the result of stress and physical trauma. Case 3 illustrates psychological depletion immediately following physical trauma. These three cases substantiate the fact that continued stress cannot be sustained indefinitely without symptoms of psychological and/or physiological depletion. These patients represent the new form of combat neurosis—the battered teacher.

During my interviews with these 250 teachers, only two of whom had had previous psychiatric treat-

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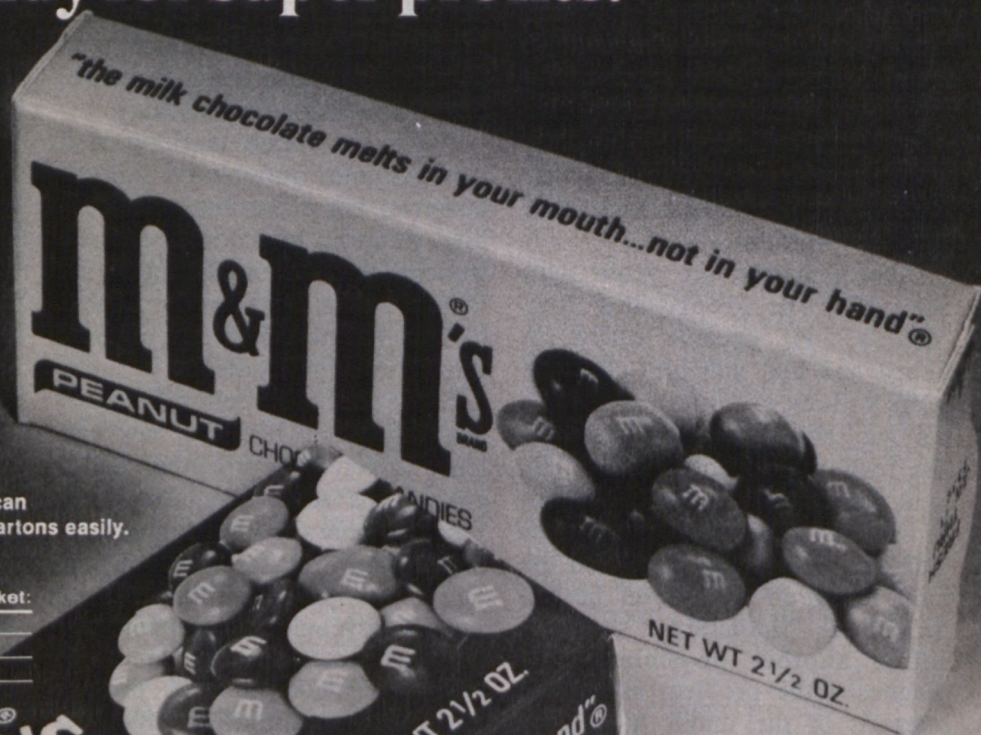
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ment, they pointed out the following problems:

- *Psychological and somatic complaints.* They reported somatic illnesses; they complained of fatigue and weakness, blurred vision, irritability, sensitivity to weather, difficulty in coping, dizziness, malaise, and depression.

Their specific complaints represented the full range of stress-related illnesses. Cardiovascular symptoms included palpitations, hypertension, arteriosclerosis, and coronary artery disease. Musculoskeletal symptoms included back difficulties, cervical tension, headaches, etc. Respiratory symptoms included repeated upper respiratory infections and bronchial asthma, hyperventilation, etc. Some teachers had evidence of physical trauma: lacerations, bruises, etc., as well as head injuries, seizures, and deafness.

- *Anxiety concerning the continuum of campus violence.* These teachers reported that the violence aimed at them included direct threats of murder and rape, actual physical assault and injury by students with and without weapons, theft, arson, and various other forms of vandalism of personal property. Violence on campus not specifically directed at them included bombings of classrooms, theft and destruction of campus equipment, fights between students and gang members, murder, and rape. They said that open-locker searches on some of their campuses revealed drugs, dynamite, knives, stilettos, ammunition, rifles, and handguns.

The presence of gang members, vagrants, and nonstudents on campus has continued to plague inner-city schools as a major problem contributing to violence. Many battered teachers reported that neither the administration nor security personnel are able to control the presence or actions of anonymous vagrants.

These teachers described the

combination of gang warfare and the presence of weapons on campus as volatile. One teacher told of a gang member who, recently transferred from another school and assigned to his metal shop class, felt obliged to kill a student of an opposing gang whom he spotted in the same class. The first student, exasperated because his intended victim had failed to attend school that day, took out a pistol and fired two clips of ammunition into the classroom and school office before staff members subdued him. Security personnel were not immediately available, because they were concurrently investigating a stabbing incident that had occurred in another area of the same campus.

- *Lack of preparedness.* These teachers indicated they were unprepared to cope with school violence, especially when gang warfare and weapons were involved. They were not prepared physically or psychologically to be the focus of threats and physical assault. Therefore, they relied on others to protect them (e.g., security officers or the administration). When disillusioned by their vulnerability and helplessness and the absence of protection or support from the administration, they became anxious and fearful. This phenomenon was reinforced with continued incidents of violence.

Whatever their initial motivation had been for teaching, none had received "basic training" to prepare them for the violence they encountered in "combat zones."

- *Difficulty in reporting incidents.*

1. Many said administrators made them feel responsible for being the targets of violence. This they said was the most demoralizing aspect of reporting incidents. When this happened, they felt outrage, and because they were unable to strike back, they experienced lowered self-esteem. For example, after Mr. K. (Case 1), who is

White, sustained a 15-minute battering from an angry Black student wielding a chair, his principal told him, "This [incident] is *your* fault and reflects *your* inability to communicate with the minorities."

2. These teachers said the number of psychological assaults (threats, harassments, intimidation) greatly exceeded the number of physical assaults, but they were not considered reportable.

3. Although legally required to report incidents of violence, these 250 teachers were often discouraged from doing so. Frequently, they stated that school administrators gave them the implicit message that it was "not in their best interest" to report an incident. As a result, these teachers tried to function under a Damoclean sword: the threat to their job security if they were "unsuccessful teachers" and the continued ordeal of facing violence in their classrooms and on campus.

4. Some of these teachers also said that in an attempt to keep out vagrants, their schools required that classroom windows and doors remain locked during class and opened only at the end of class. Because most intercommunication systems either were in disrepair or had been stolen, teachers who were threatened by violence during a class period had no way to communicate for help.

- *Overcrowded classrooms.* These teachers reported that their classes had as many as 75 percent more students than they should have had. Many contained violence-prone students who had police records.

- *Poor leadership and ultimate breakdown of morale.* Teachers who had received little or no support after sustaining injuries or being threatened stated that they believed the school administrators were more concerned with projecting an acceptable profile than they were with the safety of the teaching staff. (I must emphasize that

these teachers consistently stated that if their schools had had adequate security measures and if their administrators had been supportive, they could have continued with their teaching assignments. One woman in this series, who had been violently beaten by a student, had the full and sympathetic support of her school principal; after recovering from her physical wounds, she returned to teaching and is doing fairly well.)

- *Difficulty in obtaining transfers out of stressful areas.* Teachers' requests for transfers to other schools in less stressful areas were usually denied. The added frustration of no escape from an intolerable situation short of resignation seemed to effect symptoms of final breakdown. Somatic and psychological complaints increased until the battered teacher became physically and psychologically disabled.

- *Predisposing factors.*

1. An impaired ability to deal effectively with fear or danger was the primary predisposing factor present in more than 75 percent of the teachers I treated. Results of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) and projective tests of these teachers indicated they are obsessional, passive, idealistic, dedicated persons, who are unable to understand or cope with the violence directed toward them. When they were the targets of violence or hostility, they were unable to strike out or retaliate and internalized their rage and fear. (Military personnel with this same personality structure comprised more than 15 percent of the psychiatric casualties of World War II. Their levels of anxiety and depression were usually high, and they tended to focus upon physical symptoms of their anxiety, e.g., heart palpitations, headaches, gastrointestinal disorders.)

2. Many of these teachers had an attitude of defeatism caused by poor leadership. Those from schools where administrative sup-

port was inadequate reported low school morale and a high incidence of psychological and physical complaints among the faculty. The same phenomenon was observed in war studies. Leadership and total support are as vital to good morale of teachers in "combat zones" as to military personnel in combat situations.

As indicated above, the battered teachers of this series have shown the same correlation between incidence of their symptoms and factors of stress as military personnel suffering from combat neurosis.

Military personnel, however, know that upon completion of a combat mission or upon surviving for a certain period of time in a war zone, they will be rotated to a nonstressful place for rest and recuperation before being returned. Studies show that this procedure has a positive effect on their adverse physical symptoms.

Treatment for military psychiatric casualties includes rest, sedation, ventilation of anxieties, ab-reactions and narcosis, followed by rapid return to the front. Treatment for teachers who present symptoms of trauma or continued stress, however, is usually disallowed until they collapse from complete physiological or psychological depletion. There are administrators who simply dismiss them as "unsuccessful teachers."

Teachers can survive in stressful schools if proper procedures are initiated. The essential measures of prevention and control of stress and trauma are as follows:

1. *Preparedness.* Psychological and physical training for the stressful situation is crucial for the survival of these teachers. Such training could minimize the impact of violence on them.

2. *Crisis intervention teams.* Crisis intervention units should be available in each school district. They would consist of two or more empathic teachers with mental

health training and experience who would immediately go to the aid of the battered teacher. Of course, persons who sustain an attack may need additional psychiatric treatment to diminish the posttraumatic effects.

3. *Morale.*

- The teaching staff must have the support of school board members and administrators.

- Personal security should be guaranteed to each teacher while on the school grounds.

- While assigned to inner-city schools with high violence profiles, teachers should receive hazard pay or some other compensation.

- After attacking a teacher or any other member of the staff, violent students should not be allowed to return to the same classroom. Too often, after a short absence, these students return to school as heroes. I recommend their suspension for longer periods.

- The three R's—rotation, rest, and recuperation from the combat zones—should be afforded the teachers, i.e., at the end of a maximum two- or three-year period, the teachers should be rotated to a less stressful school.

- Classroom teachers should have an opportunity to report *directly* to the school board about unfair administrators, overcrowding, violence, etc. This would be constructive in that teachers will know that "someone is listening," and that when needed, remedial measures may be taken.

4. *Sharing.* Teachers should have the opportunity "to share" or "to work through" the violent events that they encounter. Working through at the individual and group level is an important aspect of the ultimate acceptance of the event and its consequences. This should relieve some of the teacher's psychic load and facilitate the development of good morale. Sharing will relieve tension and help develop camaraderie among members of the teaching staff. □

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 48

Runaways

By MYRON BRENTON
Education Writer.

They run. They are teenagers. Some are from minority groups or from blue-collar families; many are Anglo or have backgrounds that are solidly middle class. They slip out from foster homes, from institutions, from home; most leave their homes, their parents. They are America's teenage runaways, whose number some authorities estimate to be from 300,000 to 500,000 a year.

Runaway youths are nothing new in our history, of course. Driven out by hunger and general wretchedness, hordes of adolescents fled their homes during the Depression years. Great numbers took off just after the beginning of World War II, seeking employment in the manpower-hungry war plants. A third giant wave of runaway teenagers rolled over city and countryside from the mid-1960's to the early 1970's—counterculture youths rebelling against authority, seeking a sense of "family" in communal settings, looking for a bit of excitement to offset the boredom of their everyday lives.

And today? Wherever one goes to ask about runaways—at runaway houses, Travelers Aid offices, and family service agencies, a common refrain is heard: It may be that fewer girls and boys are running now than did so during the height of the counterculture years—but there's no question that their problems are more serious. As Senator Birch Bayh, chairman of the Subcommittee To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, has said, "Today running away is less likely to be a healthy striving for adulthood than an anguished cry for help from a child who has nowhere to turn."

Why do they run? Many do so because they have been beaten up, whipped, or otherwise physically abused. Many flee from parents whose child-rearing approach is rig-



id to the point of oppressiveness or so permissive as to convey, "I don't really care what happens to you."

Some girls run because their fathers or stepfathers have sexually victimized them. Some because they are pregnant and scared to tell their folks—or because their parents disapprove of their boyfriends. For example, Valley Youth House in an old middle-class area of Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, reports that it has sheltered girls whose parents are enraged at them for dating boys of another race.

Some boys and girls, under terrific pressure to perform well academically, run upon getting poor report cards. Some children of divorce leave home to find their non-custodial parent.

In background, many runaways are similar. Often at least one of their parents has a drinking problem. Often the family has repeatedly uprooted itself, moving from city to city. Often the parents are separated or divorced or are having serious marital conflict. Nearly always, there are severe communications problems between the runaway and the parents, between the parents themselves, and between the parents and their other children.

Boys and girls may say they ran because they were tired of being hassled about clothes, hair, grades, chores, and other seemingly trivial issues—trivial, at least, in relation to the enormity of running away. Social workers often find that these are only surface reasons. Underneath are pathological family situations that make the running more explicable.

Young people run away all year, but there are seasonal variations. Many take off the first week of spring. Many do so just after school closes for the summer, in September when schools reopen, and in the fall when the first report cards are issued.

By far the largest number of teenage runaways stay in their own neighborhoods with friends. They

sneak into a friend's house at night, slip out again at dawn; no adult in the house is the wiser. Some socially popular runaways live for weeks or even months handed from friend to friend. Others find crash pads or communes.

Some young people run far from their homes. Now, as in the past, San Francisco, Washington, Boston, New York City, and several Florida towns are popular with teenage runaways.

In these and many other places, young people can find shelter at runaway houses. Those who come to The Bridge in Boston are a typical group. Many more girls come than boys, most are from the middle class, most return home in a week or so. Also typical is the average age of the runaways who come to The Bridge: It used to be 15 or 16, now it's closer to 13.

How do young runaways survive? By panhandling; by depending on the kindness of strangers; by taking on odd jobs; by stealing, dealing in dope, or allowing themselves to be exploited as prostitutes. In fact, runaways and those who work with them say it's much harder now than in the "make-love-not-war" counterculture era for teenagers to survive without resorting to criminality; because of the economic situation and because of fear, people are less generous to strangers—even young strangers—than they used to be. Moreover, the longer runaways stay away from home, the less likely they are to return—and the more time they spend on the streets, the more likely they are to become "street people," unable to function in conventional settings and deteriorating mentally and physically.

It's precisely to keep young runaways from becoming street people—to house, feed, and protect them and to help them with their problems—that runaway houses have been established. The first was Huckleberry House in San Francis-

co, started in 1967 as thousands of broke and hungry kids overran the city's streets. More shelters soon sprang up as other places became meccas for runaways.

At first the runaway houses were haphazardly funded, badly run, determinedly hostile to parents and to other authority figures. Many folded. Then local, state, and federal agencies became interested in the plight of runaways and began to fund some programs to help them. The Runaway Youth Act of 1974 sharply increased the federal funds available for developing or strengthening local facilities to aid young runaways. The number of shelters grew.

The *National Directory of Runaway Programs* for 1976 lists 130 runaway houses in 42 states. As funding has become more readily available and as shelters have learned from their past mistakes, they have become better run.

All runaway houses provide free food and shelter to runaway teenagers for stays ranging from a few days to a few weeks. Almost all provide individual, group, and family counseling. Either directly or by referral, almost all offer psychiatric, medical, legal, employment, and educational services. Many can arrange foster and group-home placements. Some welcome youths referred by juvenile courts or police departments. Many are endeavoring to broaden their own services, to become crisis-intervention centers for all troubled youths, not just runaways. Most have at least one qualified mental health professional on staff or on call, some welcome interns from local social work schools, all rely heavily on the services of volunteer adults who are sympathetic to teenagers.

Runaway houses are required to notify the runaway's parents within 24 to 72 hours after the runaway's arrival, depending on state law and their own policy. All have rules—such as no sex, no drugs, no violence, no weapons on the prem-

ises. A few boys and girls decide that runaway-house rules are as difficult to live by as those at home, if not more so; then comes their moment of decision.

"They decide, 'Gee, home isn't such a bad place after all'—or they create problems they can't work out and ask to go home," says Carol Tweedy of Seabury Barn, a runaway shelter in Stony Brook, New York. Ms. Tweedy endeavors to make the runaways in her shelter see that the way they behave there parallels the way they behave with their parents—good and bad.

Exceptional circumstances aside, teenagers do not run suddenly. First they are *potential* runaways—thinking about running, trying to change their disturbing situation, hoping for some resolution to their problem. They signal their state of mind by their behavior—becoming sullen or withdrawn at home, refusing to see friends or getting into many fights with them, disobeying parental rules and restrictions, beginning or intensifying drug use, or doing poorly in school. When such signals are steadfastly ignored and the help they need is not forthcoming, says Ms. Tweedy, potential runaways take off.

Not all would-be runaways run the whole gamut of warning signals, but it's a rare one whose schoolwork had not been affected by tensions he or she experienced before running. Typically, in the weeks or months prior to running away, the young person loses interest in studying, stops doing homework, gets bad scores on tests, cuts classes.

Few teenage runaways vanish from home without talking about their intention, to a trusted friend at least. Some confide in a teacher to whom they feel especially close or a guidance counselor in whom they have a lot of confidence. In most schools, it's the counselor who finally deals with the situation.

Daisy K. Shaw, director of the New York City school system's Bu-

reau of Educational and Vocational Guidance, sees the guidance counselor's role as threefold: counseling the potential runaway, analyzing the problem, and trying to relieve the pressures on the student. The parents should be called in and told of the explosive situation, she says, but only with the student's knowledge. It's often appropriate to refer the entire family to an outside agency for possible family therapy.

Ms. Shaw points out that just because a student threatens to run does not mean he or she actually intends to do so. Running away may still be a fantasy. But the threat should still be considered seriously. "It's a cry for help," Ms. Shaw stresses, "and ought to be followed up by an appropriate member of the school staff."

In most instances, she feels, a teacher approached by a would-be runaway should not give the name and address of the nearest runaway house. Doing so might seem like encouragement—just the push the student needs to put the fantasy into action.

In a small but growing number of communities, runaway houses and school systems are working together to help potential and actual runaways. Well-administered shelters encourage or require their long-term runaways to attend school daily—not only so they can keep up with their studies but also so they can have at least one familiar routine while their lives are in turmoil.

Some runaway houses and local schools carry on joint programs. Berkeley (California) Youth Alternatives places its counselors and volunteers as interns in five local schools. They work with chronic truants, with students who create serious disturbances in class, and with those who have personal or family alcohol problems. Valley Youth House in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, gets more than 10 percent of its caseload as referrals from teachers and guidance counselors in the local schools. Many such

youths simply need a short cooling-off period because of tensions at home.

Dale House is a runaway shelter in Colorado Springs, Colorado, run by Young Life, a nationwide mission to teenagers. James R. Oraker, its staff psychologist, says it works closely with the area's high schools. Boys and girls who have a history of doing badly in school are taught how to relate to teachers, and Dale House staff members work closely with individual classroom teachers.

Dr. Oraker advocates a close working relationship between schools and runaway houses wherever they exist—with one caveat. Because the quality of service varies considerably in the various shelters, he suggests that a school considering a joint program with a local runaway house first check it out with the department of social services in the community or with local health service agencies.

Schools can invite runaway-shelter counselors to give talks to teacher and parent organizations and to groups of students. Giving a potential runaway a referral to a nearby runaway house is one thing, Ms. Shaw feels, but letting all students know about the existence of runaway shelters is quite another. "Students ought to know about runaway houses as they do about drug-rehabilitation programs and other community resources," she says. Classroom teachers—especially English teachers—can discuss the runaway phenomenon in class. School and shelter administrators can get together to develop programs of mutual benefit, as the Berkeley Youth Alternatives and the Berkeley city schools have done.

Presumably, we will always have young runaways. The difference between now and the past is that communities are beginning to deal with them in more constructive and humane ways. In this context, schools and teachers have a significant contribution to make. □

Earthwatch Expeditions Are "the Real Thing"

By GARY GOSHGARIAN
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If you are not Margaret Mead or Jacques Cousteau but would like to make believe you are on your next vacation, look into Earthwatch. It can turn your summer into a National Geographic Special.

The organization is a kind of scientific Peace Corps—"an effort to involve citizens of all ages in field research," says the latest catalog. By enlisting paying volunteers, Earthwatch provides both helpers and funds for scientists to mobilize on expeditions all year all over the world.

Earthwatch expeditions are the real thing, not educational field trips or exotic wilderness tours. You don't ride by some crumpled wonder of the world in an air-conditioned glass bus while trying to take pictures at 35kms per hour. Nope! You're out in a Peruvian rain forest that hasn't got a name and you've got 13 kilos of pack on your back and you're stalking the elusive yellow-handed titi because it's there, and when you're not doing that, you're snacking on mung beans and Spam under a palm-frond roof among the mosquitoes and mumbling irreverent things about the Almighty. Or, like us, you're out in the Mediterranean in a wet suit, taking measurements off a Roman wreck that's been lying in watery state 45 meters down since Julius Caesar was a kid.

Like all high adventure, the Earthwatch experience is not for everybody. But it does draw men and women from 16 to 75, all look-

ing for new knowledge and the unusual adventure. Students, marketing analysts, secretaries, engineers, welders, clergymen, college drop-outs, and even English teachers—we had one of each on our Mallorcan team.

At least 75 expedition teams will be running between now and the year's end. This summer, you might want to join a team going to northwest New Mexico to excavate an elaborate pueblo known as Salmon Ruins or to Connecticut to recover Indian artifacts or to prehistoric sites in Peru to study ancient methods of migration. Perhaps you'd rather go to the tip of Cape Cod to study beach and harbor ecology or journey to an untouched area of Ecuador to census and collect birds, amphibians, and other reptiles.

Even though no two expeditions are alike, my own experience last summer suggests the limitless possibilities. I decided to apply for the Mallorcan shipwreck team because I had never been scuba diving, because I had just read *Jaws*, and because I had an abnormal craving for excitement. Then, too, I had known Philippe Cousteau more than a dozen years ago at Worcester Tech. I remembered hating the half-mystical glow in his face every time he'd talk about what he and his father had done under some wine-dark sea on his last vacation, and I was getting tired of that envy every time one of their specials was on TV. Besides, I owed him a postcard, and one from Colonia de Sant Jordi would kill him. So I signed up for a crash course in scuba—six weeks

at the local Y—spent a lot of money on the local dive shops, and applied to Earthwatch.

By the time the plane touched down in Palma de Mallorca, I had a total of seven open-water dives under my weight belt—all of them less than 15 meters down in a sheltered cove in Gloucester, Massachusetts. I had done some reading on marine archaeology, but my knowledge of pottery was limited to what the street people sold in Harvard Square.

OK, as a diver I was outclassed by the others on the team, but in two weeks I'd catch up without a doubt. As for the technical background, the chief scientist, S. Dominic Ruegg—classicist, marine archaeologist, Christian Brother, and academic vice-president of St. Mary's College in Moraga, California—would fill us in during the daily seminars.

Compared to the living conditions of some expeditions, ours were five-star. We were housed in a six-room apartment that Earthwatch rented in tiny ocean-front Colonia about 55 kilometers from Palma. The place was remarkably void of ambiance—no robust hand-carved dining room set, no damask, no tapestries, no bronze bust of Cervantes, not even a plastic *toro*. The apartment came without room service and screens, and the hot water came when it wanted. There was a backyard full of chickens, a living room full of diving equipment, a kitchen full of ants, but a front balcony full of a view of the ancient harbor that would have made John Keats ache. That's where we spent most of our time when we weren't

in the water—by day, cataloging artifact samples; by night, under flawless heavens, sipping wine, swapping giant manta-ray stories, and feeling superior to the German tourists who strolled along the beachfront below. *They* were tourists; *we* were this crackerjack Earthwatch marine-exploration team sent in from the States.

We found we could swim all day, eat all night, and get healthier all the time. Some people say it's a phenomenon of fieldwork—hours of strenuous labor and not a minute's fatigue.

We spent most of the first week surveying Colonia's harbor with just snorkel gear. It turned out that the harbor was a graveyard of ancient vessels—Roman, Phoenician, and Arabic. Our purpose was to locate as many wrecks as possible to provide evidence for Brother Dom's theory that Colonia was an ancient seaport. It was. We found 40 wrecks. That's right, 40—the best of them a pile of ballast stones and scattered fragments of pottery. No blackened hulls rearing out of the sand bar, no rows of giant wine amphoras, no golden statues of Baal, and no bones. Just a lot of stones and broken pots, which to scientists are invaluable historic records.

Brother Dom (like all marine archaeologists, I suppose) was yearning for a ship that looters and time hadn't plundered, one that offered more than shards, one that could be properly excavated and perhaps reconstructed on land. Up to the present, only about a dozen ancient wrecks had undergone the kind of precise archaeological excavation he had in mind. Their dates ranged from 1000 B.C. to the seventeenth century, but there was a large gap around the time of Christ. Nobody had yet found one from that period worthy of the investment.

Colonia would yield nothing.

Brother Dom had heard rumors that there were some virgin wrecks

about 10 kilometers offshore in the harbor of a small uninhabited island called Cabrera. So, months before the expedition, he and Earthwatch applied for permission to dive there. But between us and Cabrera lay a lot more than 10 kilometers of ocean—Spanish bureaucracy as thick as the local gazpacho and as subtle. The permission never came. When we got to Mallorca, we were told there would be *no permissiones* because Cabrera was a military base where a couple of months each year they'd hold gunnery practice. Generalissimo Franco was still alive then and arresting anyone left of Hermann Goering, so we didn't attempt to sneak out there disguised as driftwood. But a tour boat went to Cabrera every other day loaded with picnickers who'd wander around the place all day: The security risk excuse was hard to believe.

After a week we discovered what the trouble was—an important lawyer from Palma who had a house around the corner from us and who had heard about us. As it turned out, he was also a diver. On weekends he played at archaeology, allegedly looting wrecks and selling the booty to museums or tourists. His house looked like the antiquities rooms at the Metropolitan Museum, except for the plastic geraniums which bloomed in the mouth of a rare second-century B.C. Punic oil lamp.

It took all of Brother Dom's efforts to get the lawyer to understand that Earthwatch supported scientific research, not the pursuit of treasure trove. The next day *permissiones* came through.

In an hour our boat, the *Zodiac*, entered the harbor of Cabrera. Exquisite! Under delft blue sky and puffy white clouds, it spread out like an hourglass into the open sea. On each side of the harbor were high craggy slopes, black goats grazing on one, the other surmounted by the remains of a Moorish castle.

Right away we checked in with

the *commandante* at the small port house just so we wouldn't get depth-charged. Then we steered the *Zodiac* to the channel's narrowest part, which seemed the most likely place for ancient ships to have run afoul of rocks in bad seas. We dropped anchor—only to discover we needed more line.

The bottom was more than 38 meters down.

Brother Dom divided us into three buddy teams. I volunteered for the last, because I was hoping one of the first two would locate something. I was also scared. The *Zodiac* was a long way from Folly Cove in Gloucester, but I wasn't. The first team returned in half an hour. Half an hour after that, the second returned with the same report—nothing. Lots of water and rainbow fish and sea grass, but that was it. It was our turn, and I fought down the impulse to wrap myself around my diving buddy.

Thirty seconds after I hit the water, I lost sight of him. But what made me nearly suck the air bottle dry was the way my depth gage kept moving, registering twice its previous record. Below me was an unbroken carpet of black sea grass slowly heaving in the currents. The only other feature of the surroundings was the thick blue that contracted around me. I glided at 30 meters, just above the border between 25° C and 15° C water. Below me the ocean floor fell away 15 or 18 meters, so I turned east toward shallow water. A small sting ray fluttered beneath me. I followed it with my eye until in the distance I thought I saw a vague break in the grass. It was too bright to be reflective light—at this depth there wasn't much of that. I angled toward it; when I got within about 15 meters, it started to take on definition. My gage read 38 meters, and I was still going down. That unsettled me. So did the sudden drop in temperature and the fact that I had little more than four minutes of air left. I was becoming almost gid-

dy with the urge to go up, when I found myself 5 meters above a natural swath of sand. I hovered above it, waiting for my mind to catch up to what my eyes were focusing on.

I had seen photographs of them. During the last several days, I had stirred up hundreds of fragments of them. Now here they were, lying right below me, side-by-side in smug repose like twin deities: two Punic amphoras or vases, each nearly a meter long.

Slowly I settled beside them, feeling as though I had violated their ancient privacy. Anchored down by sand, they lay there among the rainbow fish in a state of perfect preservation, whole and clean—Keats's unravished brides of quietness.

What so disarmed me about the discovery was not its significance, but the special privilege of it. It was awe that I felt as I slowly ran my hand down the neck and belly of one of them and touched where the potter's fingers made those grooves just below the handles when the clay was soft, 22 centuries ago.

I remember thinking the last person who ran his fingers there was probably a little dark-skinned sailor from some forgotten port where Hannibal's campaigns were current events, when Bethlehem was just another quiet town. Now, at 43 meters down, I was connecting with that guy, that boat, that port, and that faraway time through some old pottery that for an infinite moment belonged just to me.

Two days later and a hundred meters east we found a mound 20 meters long which might contain their companions. The top layer looked slightly disturbed. What artifact treasures lay beneath could only be guessed at—perhaps even some of the hull, which in scientific value would be second only to the captain himself. To explore our find would take months of work and very generous sponsorship. But our mission was accomplished.

Some day Brother Dom may find his benefactor and enough ship to

bring up and reconstruct. For me, the thrill of discovery was its own reward, and the realization that not all the really exciting discoveries have already been made, not all the ancient world has been Schliemannized or put into a glass case. I also like knowing that I helped hunt down a little ancient history last summer, even without a lot of degrees in archaeology.

Not all my discoveries were made underwater. There were discoveries about myself and about courage and fear and companionship (if I sound like Hemingway here, maybe it's the Spanish influence).

There was the realization of what research really means—the detailed and often disappointing work and the great rewards of discovery. More exciting was the realization that I was going to be able to bring this experience back to my students. The really important effects on them will not be academic. I don't expect that my occasional allusions to the expedition will make better marine archaeologists of them or get them that A in ancient history or boost their appreciation for Hemingway and Melville. The effect I'm hoping for is the growth of that spirit that makes a special breed out

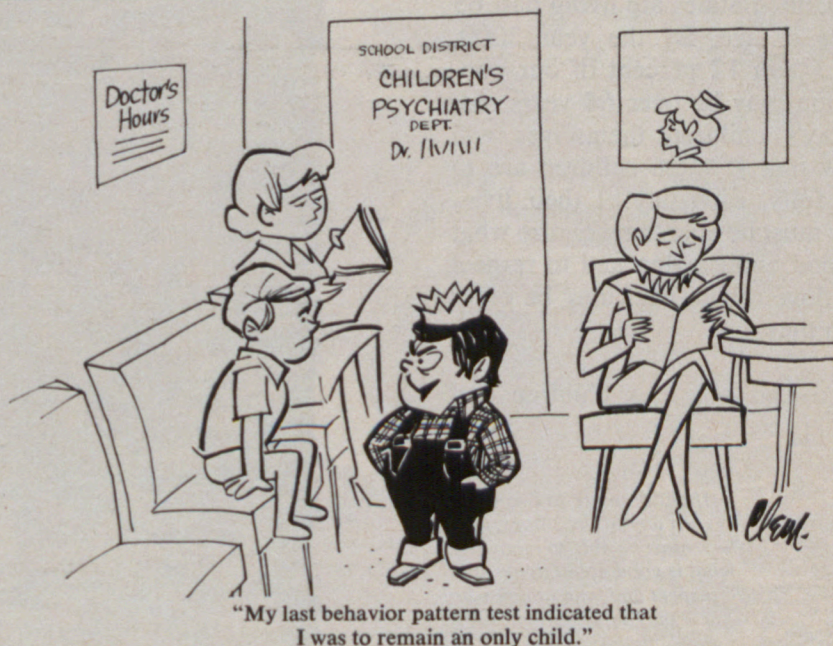
of ordinary people, urging us to take up the gauntlet of high adventure.

That spirit of adventurousness seems to be getting scarce. Maybe it's because of TV and those definitive studies of just about everything which you can pick up in any campus bookstore; maybe because people in my own profession have for too long encouraged students to filter life through literature instead of the other way around. It's sad, even scary, when a student says that he'd rather pick up a picture book on the Greek islands than journey there, that he'd rather take somebody's word for it that Stonehenge is awesome.

I know I can't teach students to be adventurous; I can only give them the notion that the adventure I had was real. I really spent my vacation as part of a legitimate discovery team diving into the past through the opalescent Mediterranean surf.

My experience will be put to good use if it stimulates that spirit in my students and maybe encourages some of them to act on it. □

For information about this year's programs, write Earthwatch, 10 Juniper Road, Box 127E, Belmont, MA 02178.



By KATHY SEROCK,
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It's a fact, we live in a world where it's better to be young than to be old. To adults in our society, being old is being tired, unproductive, mentally slower, grouchy, withdrawn, in the least happy or fortunate time of life, as D. G. Mc Tavish found ("Perceptions of Old People: A Review of Research, Methodologies, and Findings," *The Gerontologist*, Winter 1971, Part II).

But how do children feel about growing old in a society where people stay 39 for years and years? Do they reflect our society's attitudes toward the elderly and aging? Do they know old people? How do they feel about growing old themselves?

These questions are important because more and more people in the United States are living past 65 years of age. By the year 2000, more than 12 percent of our population may be over 64 years old. Today's children themselves will grow old. If these children are to live fully, each day of their lives, they must be able to recognize what is good about aging and to respect and love others who may be older than they.

To find out how children feel

If children are to live fully, each day of their lives, they must be able to recognize what is good about aging, and to respect and love others who may be older than they. ►

As Children See Old Folks





Teachers can help improve children's attitudes toward aging and the elderly

about aging and the elderly, we asked 180 children, 20 at each age level between the ages of three and 11, how they felt about growing old, what they knew of older people, and how they interacted with people who were older than they. We believe the information gained from talking to these children could be useful to educators and to people planning curriculum. (Our study was funded by a grant from the American Association of Retired Persons and the National Retired Teachers Association.)

As it turned out, children at all age levels had limited knowledge of old people. They just didn't know many older people. Only 39 of the 180 children were able to name an older person they knew outside of the family unit.

Perhaps because children had so little contact with older people, they expressed a lot of stereotypes about the old: "They're all wrinkled and short," "They have gray hair," "They don't go out much," "They chew funny," "Old people sit all day and watch TV in their rocking chairs," and "They have heart attacks and die."

There is probably an elderly person somewhere who sits and rocks all day watching TV, but to these children, all older people are passive, unattractive, and unproductive. Children saw old people as a homogeneous group with no diversity of interests, activities, or lifestyles.

When we asked children how they felt about growing old themselves, their answers were straightforward. They simply did not want to do it. Yes, there were a few chil-

dren—two or three—who said, "Well, that's just the way it is," "There's nothing you can do about it," or "It's the way God made us." Another few said, "Gee, if I were old then I could have a house," or a car or something else. But these comments accounted for only 11 percent of all responses children gave to the question. The other 89 percent responded negatively: "Oh no, not me!" "I don't want to get old," "That's awful, being old is terrible," "It's ugly!"

Anyone who thinks that old age has no meaning for young children is greatly mistaken. These children knew what old age is and knew with certainty that they didn't want to grow old. We asked them why. The most frequent responses were that if they were old, death would soon follow and that life would hold few pleasures for them.

We thought it was important to find out how children interacted with older people, what things they thought older people could do for them and with them, and what things they thought they could do for older people. Once again, the responses seemed to stereotype older people as a group of passive, inactive, uninteresting persons.

Quite frequently children would say, "Well, we could go to visit Grandpa and play checkers or watch TV," "We could go to church with them," or "Play cards." It's not that going to church, playing cards, or watching TV are bad in themselves, but they are typical of the unrelieved passivity the children attributed to older people.

Children thought of themselves

as taking care of older people. "We could get them their slippers," "Take them to the doctor or to church," and yes, they even said they could "bury them." At the same time, the children believed that older people could help them: They could "help me with my homework," "read to me," or "teach me things."

There were a few exceptional responses that usually reflected something very specific to the child's background: "I can help him sail his boat" or "We can ride his horse."

In order to be sure the children knew what we were talking about when we asked them about old and young people, we showed them a picture of a 20-year-old man and one of an 80-year-old. These pictures were drawn by an artist to control for all variables except that of age. Children were asked which of these men they would want to be with and what they could do with that man.

The majority of the children picked the younger man, saying they could "go to the park," "play games," or "have fun with him." Some of the older children, those in the fifth and sixth grades, selected the older man on the grounds that they could help him.

Although children expressed the idea that the elderly are passive people who are not much fun to be with, they also expressed deep affection for older people. They evidently feel negatively about the physical and behavioral characteristics of age, but feel warm affection toward older people. The children described older people as "rich, friendly, wonderful, and good," but at the same time as "sick, ugly, and sad." The children said they loved their grandparents; they just didn't ever want to be like them!

Children who lived in different settings answered questions a bit differently. Those who lived in a rural area or on a farm gave responses that suggested they consid-

ered older people somewhat more active than did those who lived in the suburbs or urban areas. Children in the rural areas more frequently said things like "I could help him carry firewood" or "We can do chores together."

Boys and girls, Blacks and Whites, and children of various socioeconomic backgrounds responded the same way to the same questions. Like location, however, the children's ages influenced how they saw aging and the elderly.

The youngest children were the ones who expressed the most negative feelings about old people and growing old. The probability of kindergarten children's giving a negative comment about aging and the elderly was .92; of sixth graders, only .35.

Although the youngest children seemed to know that they didn't want to grow old themselves, their answers to other questions showed that they had little understanding of age concepts. For instance, younger children had great difficulty estimating the ages of the drawings of four men at ages 20, 40, 60, and 80. Few preschoolers said any of these men were older than 10. Children over the age of five, however, were able to identify the picture of the 80-year-old man as the oldest. Forty percent of the kindergarten children were able to correctly order the pictures from the youngest to the oldest. From the first grade on, children could do this with little difficulty.

It became apparent that children of different ages had different levels of understanding of the concept of age. On the basis of Piagetian ideas of children's time concepts, we decided to present the children with the statement "Your grandmother grows older every day." We weren't really interested in their agreement or disagreement with the statement, but in the reasons they gave for the answer. We wanted to know whether children look on aging as a continuous process. When a child re-

sponded, "Yes, because she eats a lot" or "No, because she's stopped having birthdays," we could tell that he or she had not reached the understanding that aging is a continuous process.

We also wanted to know whether children associate age differences with birth order, as Piaget has predicted. When a child said that he or she could catch up in years to someone five years older, that child was obviously not at the same level of conceptual understanding as a child who answered that it would be impossible to catch up to someone who was born before he or she was.

Piaget and others have suggested that children associate size or height with age and that age is not viewed as a continuum in its own right. The child who was certain that her mother and grandmother were the same age because they were both big and the same size had not mastered the concept. These answers and the answers to similar questions suggested that children's concepts of age do follow a definite developmental sequence and that the level of understanding increases as children themselves increase in age.

All the experiences children have in school contribute to the formation of their attitudes. Educators can help improve children's attitudes toward aging and the elderly in two ways. First, they can examine the ways in which they and the school are influencing those attitudes.

How often do teachers say, "I can't do that, I'm too old" or giggle when asked their age? Teachers can examine the materials of the school—books, filmstrips, all of the things that provide models for children—to see that they do not present the elderly as a stereotyped group. If they do, teachers can take the second type of action—challenging the stereotypes.

One way to challenge stereotypes of the elderly is to provide children

with accurate information. Involving older people as volunteers in the classroom on a continual regular basis lets children see for themselves that it is diversity rather than similarity that characterizes the elderly.

Members of the Foster Grandparents program, the Retired Senior Volunteer Program, and other organized groups of older people are ready and eager to work with children. Once children see older people who are active, involved, creative, and fulfilled, they will no longer be able to stereotype the elderly.

Teachers can also introduce children to the many forms of beauty. The fact that age brings physical change seemed to disturb children greatly. Children who know the diversity of beauty in others and in themselves will be forced to question society's concept of beauty as a tall, slim, 20-year-old Madison Avenue model. Children can also be introduced to the values of age and the contributions the elderly make to our society.

Children as young as three are saying they simply do not want to grow old themselves. We believe educators can help children to accept their own aging and to develop a strong sense of self. Knowledge and acceptance of self will permit today's children to continue to live, learn, create, and discover throughout their lifetime.

Is it possible that today's young children can change society's ambivalent feelings toward aging and the elderly? The National Old People's Welfare Council in London believes that it is. The Council claims that only as the young learn to adjust to their own aging will they be able to treat the elderly with respect. The social and personal problems of the aged, according to the Council, will be diminished in direct proportion to the amount of involvement today's young children have with their own aging and the elderly. □

Congress Enacts NEA Teacher Center Bill

Helping Teachers Teach" has long been more than a mere slogan for NEA. At the urging of the Association, Congress has enacted a law that turns over the design and control of in-service education from state agencies and higher education institutions to the teachers themselves.

The vehicle for this change is the "teacher center" provision of the Education Amendments of 1976 (Public Law 94-482, Section 153). The law authorizes initial funding of \$75 million annually to establish teacher centers—teacher-conceived, locally operated in-service programs that can break through the traditional methods of improving teachers' classroom skills and techniques. (At press time, no money had been appropriated for teacher centers; the actual appropriations for the current year and funding for 1977-78 were still under consideration on Capitol Hill.)

Essentially, a teacher center is a program of curriculum development and/or in-service education for elementary and secondary teachers carried out in one or more local educational agencies. A Teacher Center Policy Board (TCPB), a majority of whose members are practicing elementary and secondary teachers from the area served, controls and operates it. By law, each Board must have majority representation for teachers, the balance of its members representing school boards and institutions of higher education within the local area to be served.

Securing Proper Federal Administration of the Law. Having won a major legislative victory in the au-

thorization for establishment of local teacher centers, NEA is now working to influence federal policy to implement the law. NEA has proposed the following criteria and standards for those rules and regulations in order to ensure a strong teacher role which was and is the clear intent of the Congress.

- Teacher members of the Teacher Center Policy Board will be appointed by the local teacher bargaining agent or, if none exists, the teacher organization having the largest teacher membership will appoint them.

- The Teacher Center Policy Board will be established prior to the making of an application for a grant, be involved in its development, and approve the application before it is submitted to state and federal education agencies for approval.

- Under the policies established by the Policy Board, teachers (a) will have the opportunity to develop and produce curriculums designed to meet the educational needs of the persons in the community, area, or state being served and will be able to use educational research findings or new or improved methods, practices, and techniques in developing such curriculums and/or (b) will have the opportunity to improve their skills in order to meet better the needs of the persons they serve and to familiarize themselves with activities in curriculum development and educational research, including the manner in which the research can

be used to improve their teaching skills.

- In-service education for teachers will be related to implementing more effectively ongoing curriculums or to providing the necessary training for implementing new curriculums, or both. Such programs will be based on teachers' assessment of their needs in order to serve their students best.

- The Teacher Center Policy Board will hire staff to administer and coordinate the activities conducted through the Center. It will also obtain the services of instructors and specialists to provide the technical assistance and training for the teachers served and will purchase materials and equipment for the Center. Instructional personnel of the Center will be K-12 classroom teachers, university staff, regional laboratory personnel, or others as appropriate and as needed.

- Although the activities carried out through the Center may take place at any location the Policy Board determines appropriate, there will usually be a central office for the Center staff, plus facilities such as resource rooms, meeting rooms, and, when necessary, rooms for instruction and experimental teaching. The central office should be completely separate and distinct from the administrative office of the school district. It is expected that the local school districts will provide the necessary facilities.

- The Teacher Center should make it possible for teachers to participate in its activities during the regular school day by providing funding for substitute teachers.

Some Examples of Possible Teacher Center Programs. Activities in the Teacher Center will be varied and will depend on the needs of teachers served by the Center and on the experiences and resources

available both inside and outside of the school district.

In one school district, for example, a group of primary teachers may be dissatisfied with their reading curriculum. The Teacher Center will give them the research available on their present program as well as on other approaches to reading. Some teachers can then study how the same reading program functions in other school districts comparable to theirs. Others can take a careful firsthand look at promising alternative approaches that nearby districts are using. After a careful review of all options, the teachers may decide not to recommend a change in the reading curriculum but to have the Center provide in-service training to make their present reading program more effective. The in-service project could bring in experienced teachers from other districts and tap some of the expertise of a local university.

In another school district, the

elementary and junior high teachers might express concern that despite the general movement to change to the metric system, most schools within their district are not teaching it. The Teacher Center might then organize a task force of teachers from a school that already has several months' experience working in metrics with K-6 students in order to provide help to other teachers.

In yet another district, because of growing community and student interest, elementary teachers may want to take advantage of resurgence of interest in crafts and utilize crafts with the present curriculum. The Teacher Center can make arrangements with an area crafts council to acquaint teachers with techniques of using inexpensive and readily available material and provide historical background on the use of the materials. Through discussion and planning, teachers can determine how best to relate this to the curriculum and can draw upon

the techniques in social studies, music, science, and art.

There is almost no limit to what a teacher center controlled by teachers themselves can provide for the professional practitioner at all grade levels and in all subject areas. In-service education is broad, and teacher-center activities can provide teachers with demonstration lessons by other teachers, visits to other schools, teacher workshops, presentations by experts, review of curriculum studies at a college or university, sabbatical leave opportunities, independent study or research, teacher exchange programs, and role-change programs.

A teacher center will work if the teachers themselves provide leadership and have the opportunity and resources to satisfy their needs so they are able to work as effectively as possible with their students.

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A forerunner of federally funded teacher centers

The Osceola Teacher Education Center

By LLOYD OLSON

Director, Educational Media Center, St. Cloud (Florida) High School, and Chairman, Osceola Teacher Education Center;

SUE WARD

First Grade Teacher, Ross E. Jeffries Elementary School, St. Cloud; and

ZINA T. SCHUBERT

Work Experience Coordinator, Osceola High School, Kissimmee, Florida.

Being kissed by a killer whale came as a big surprise. That it could happen to a teacher during an in-service training workshop was an even bigger surprise. The Osceola Teacher Education Center made it possible by helping the teachers at Central Avenue Elementary School plan their own in-service education.

The teachers made a one-day field trip to nearby Orlando's Sea World, a trip that was to set the basis for student learning experi-

ences all year long. Interested teachers spent the day touring the facility prior to a school field trip. They fed dolphins, touched live starfish, looked down the throat of a great white shark, and were kissed by Shamu (a two-ton killer whale).

Neither the field trip nor the plan to enrich the curriculum was a new idea. What was new was that teachers conceived and executed the project—then they evaluated it and suggested needed improvements.

Teachers, who compose a major-

Teachers here are involved in planning their own in-service from the beginning

ity of the Osceola Teacher Education Center Council, which governs the Center, recommended approval of this project and budgeted provisions for it.

In-service training in Osceola County wasn't always like this. In the past, county administrators, the school board, and state certification agencies had provided "their" in-service program for teachers. The usual result was turned-off teachers.

Osceola administrators made an attempt at "involving" teachers in planning in-service by establishing a Master In-Service Plan Committee (MIP). One teacher from each school was selected to gather teacher ideas and report back to a countywide meeting. This process often broke down. One school representative suggested workshops in the making of puzzles and games and on the construction and use of puppets. The administration rejected all ideas, saying that the school board would never approve the money for such proposals.

The problem had many facets. Teachers were inexperienced in dressing up their ideas. They had to learn that a workshop on "Puzzles and Games" was much less likely to impress the school board than one on "Production of Manipulative Aids To Reinforce Basic Skills." Also, teachers did not really believe their ideas would influence the shape of in-service experiences.

Consequently, the teachers in Osceola County relied on college courses for recertification and took part in in-service grudgingly.

Throughout the state, teachers had no input into the decision-mak-

ing process and hence looked upon in-service as something akin to having the measles or a bad cold. "We put up with it and hoped it would quickly go away."

Typically, an in-service workshop meant that faculties sat together for one or two days, listening to outside "experts" lecture. All too frequently teachers responded with comments like "She didn't tell me one thing I didn't already know," "It sounds good in theory, but it would never work with my sixth graders," and "I could be doing something constructive in my classroom instead of just sitting here."

In recent years, the state of Florida has come to realize that in-service education should be an integral part of teacher education and that the county school system should be the center of teacher in-service efforts.

The result was passage of the Florida Teacher Education Center Bill of 1974, which changed the picture of in-service education in Osceola County—and in other places across the state. "Teachers can best assist with improving education when they directly and personally participate in identifying needed changes and in developing, designing, implementing, and evaluating solutions to meet the identified needs. . . ." So states the bill, which not only requires an updating of in-service training but also mandates that such training be a coordinated effort among the local school system, the teachers, the community, and the local teacher education facility. As an incentive, the state legislature budgeted funds for

the operation of teacher education centers.

Counties, such as Osceola, that formed teacher education centers are charged with the postgraduate education of their teachers and in addition are able to have input into teacher preservice education through the university representatives who are on the centers' councils.

When the funding for teacher education centers came through in June 1974, Osceola County had less than a month to write a proposal and submit it for approval. School was out, and many teachers were on vacation or working at summer jobs. But some of the teachers who had been on the earlier in-service committee were able to help put a proposal together. (A key point: The legislature requires proposals to bear the signature of the president of the local teacher association, thus ensuring teacher input in the initial planning.)

Eventually, the state approved the proposal, and the first Osceola Teacher Education Center Council (OTEC) started. In keeping with legal requirements, six teachers made up the majority of the Council. Of the six, one represented the high schools; two, the middle schools; and three, the elementary schools. This ratio approximated that of the elementary, middle school, and high school teachers in the county. Other Council members included two lay persons, a county administrator, a representative from Florida Technological University (FTU), and a nonvoting Center Director. Each school still had one representative on the Master In-Service Plan Committee to act as a liaison with the OTEC.

Since no one was really sure what a teacher education center was or should be, it took most of that first year just to formulate policies and procedures. Teachers were on unfamiliar ground, trading thoughts with administrators and occasion-

(continued on page 78)

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ally disagreeing with the "boss." In the beginning, the administrators presented the in-service plans and the teachers more or less served as a rubber-stamp congress. Gradually teachers made minor changes and then two major reforms. One new policy allowed individual teachers to select the workshops they would attend. A second major reform was the establishment of a number of ongoing projects—components—including ones in reading and math.

An instructor from Florida Technological University (FTU) was assigned to serve as a resource person for teachers, display new materials, track down information, and give demonstration lessons with students. With the help of the instructor, who came to school for a few days each month, teachers devised their own projects and then put them to work in the classroom.

One third grade teacher who participated in the ongoing math component concentrated on making math games because of their potential as a learning tool. These games enlivened the class so much that, even after the workshop ended, she continued to expand the idea. The culminating activity was a Country Store set up in the classroom and stocked with items donated by teachers and children. Students priced the items and took turns being shoppers and shopkeepers. Shoppers wrote out checks at the bank and collected their play money. Trading was heavy as eight-year-olds hurried to make change and snap up bargains, such as scuffed high heels, battered straw hats, and used teddy bears. The hottest selling items were 1960 vintage photos of the principal, the school secretary, and the teacher!

The reading component also was successful. During the first year, teachers who took part produced a wealth of teaching materials, from phonic games to tape-recorded listening lessons. One veteran teacher

(continued on page 80)

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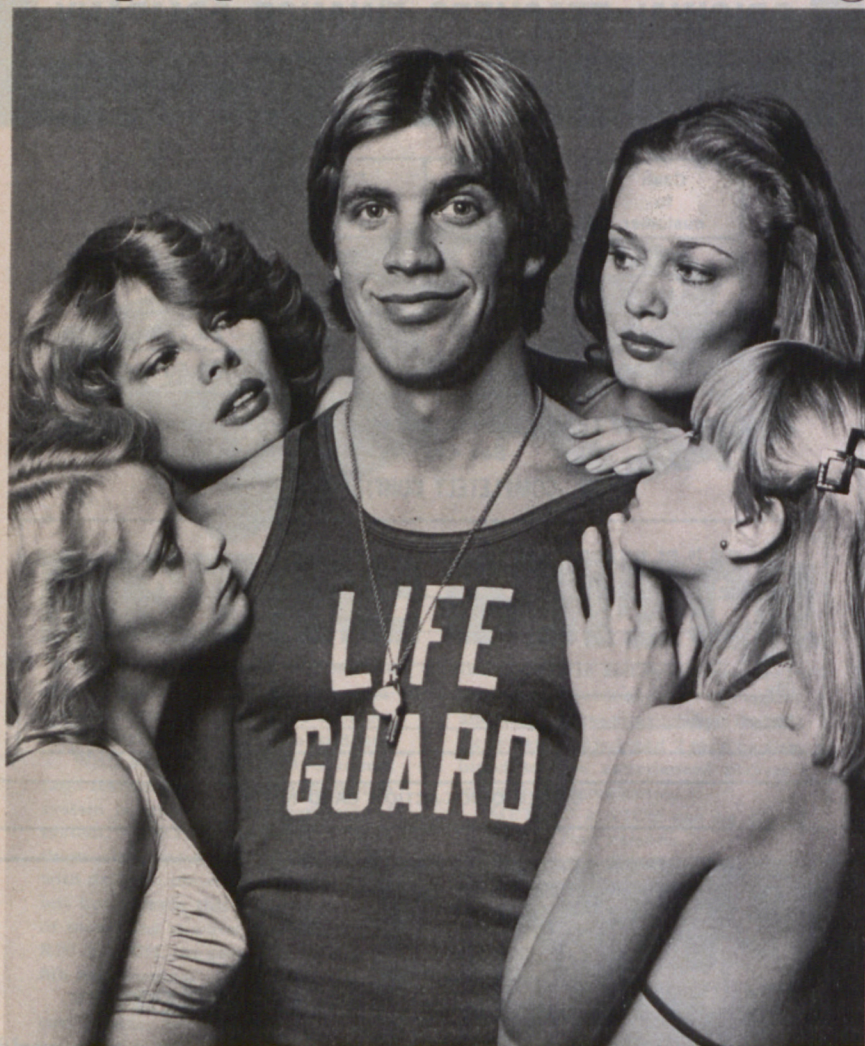
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singlehandedly organized 30 years of experience and materials into a reading-management system she calls "the best thing she has ever done for kids."

The projects were as varied as the needs that spawned them, and a group sharing session in which the materials were displayed climaxed the activities. Teachers found they could learn a great deal from one another when given the opportunity.

In the second year, Council members had their feet on the ground and became more assertive. Successful projects like the ongoing components were continued and expanded.

Through an improved needs assessment process, the Council discovered that many schools had unique needs and priorities. Most schools instituted ongoing, school-based workshops that were vastly different from the previous in-service. Teachers participated on a voluntary basis to develop components on topics such as values clarification, human relations, production of teacher-made materials, and learning centers. Instructors helped teachers make the in-service experiences worth while. On-the-spot evaluations also were instituted so that workshops could be analyzed while they were still fresh in the minds of participants.

One problem still plagued in-service education. Though the needs assessment had improved, there were still gaps in communications. What teachers wanted was not always quite what they got.

As a result, midway through the second year, TEC and MIP representatives encouraged teachers to make their requests more concrete. Then TEC and MIP members, on released time from classes, met in joint session for two days. They had lists of needs teachers gave them. In addition, they received the computerized results of a needs-assessment form previously completed by

teachers and tabulated by FTU. With these, teachers, administrators, and FTU professors wrote the components to be used in the 1976-77 school year. Subject and grade level groups tackled the job of meeting school needs.

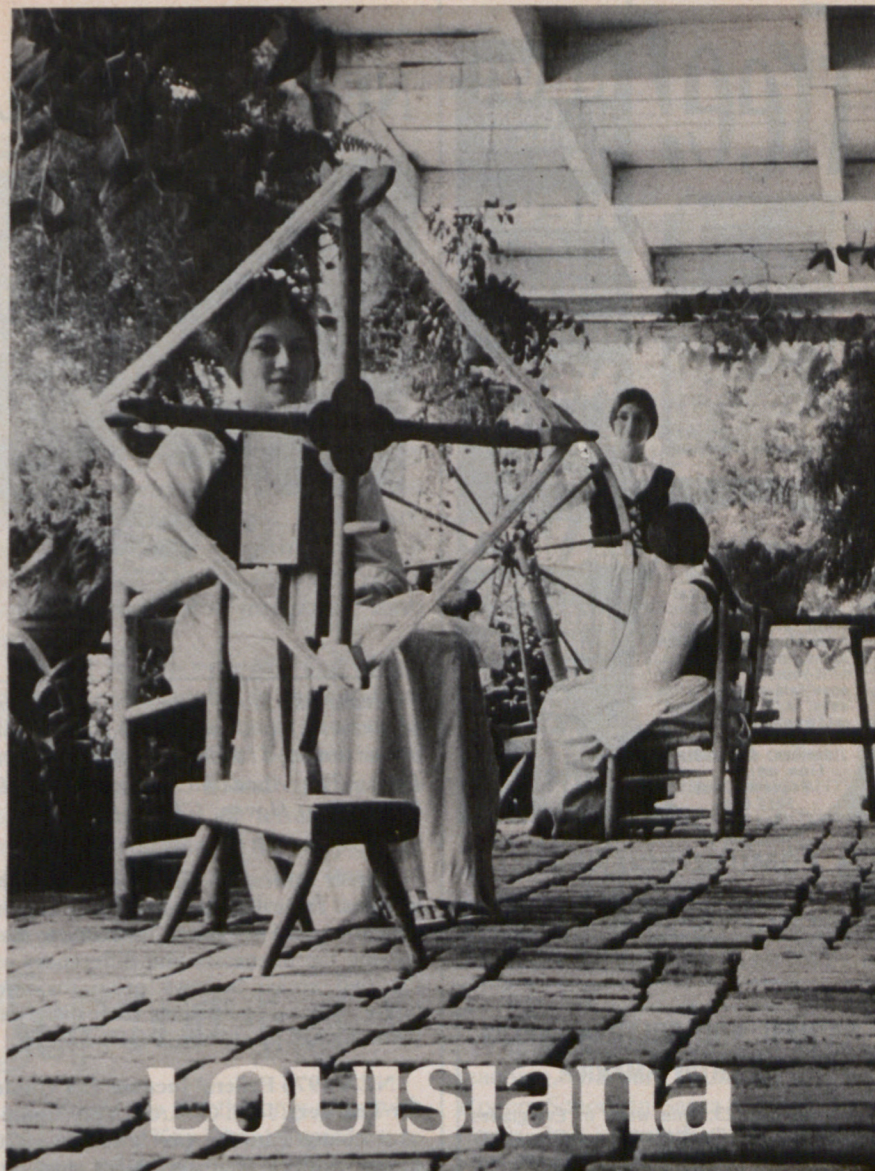
At the close of those two days, everyone shared their feelings about the sessions. Teachers were almost universally enthusiastic. "I feel good about what we did. We accomplished a lot."

Even so, teachers and the Council realized the job had just begun. Representatives returned to the schools to verify that the components would fit the needs of the teachers. This was the opportunity for teachers to make their wishes clear—and another step in giving them input in their in-service experiences. Later, TEC and MIP met jointly in half-day sessions to refine and revise the components.

It's too early to analyze the total Osceola Teacher Education Center's program—to find the good aspects to be strengthened, the weaknesses to be eradicated. Because teachers here are involved in planning their own in-service from the beginning, however, we anticipate success. □



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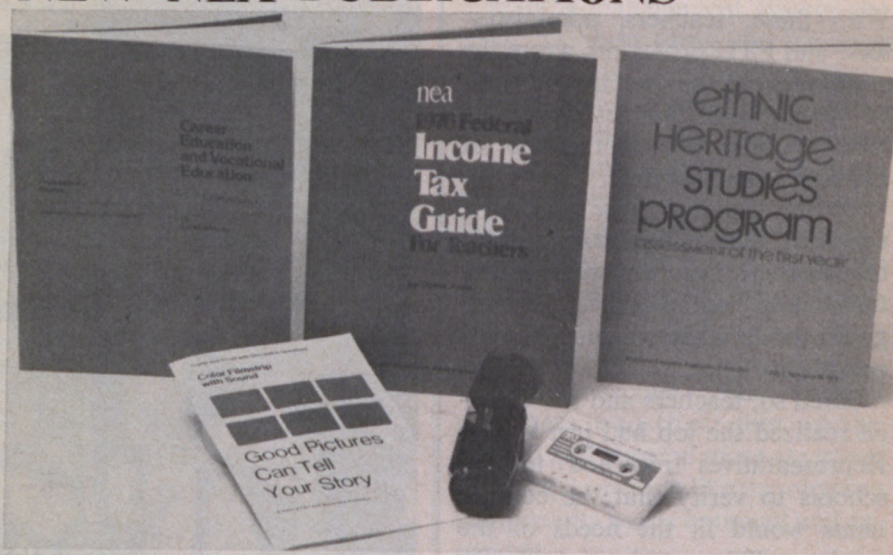
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NEA 1976 Federal Income Tax Guide for Teachers. John C. Arch. Very significant changes in the tax laws for 1976 directly affect teachers. NEA has developed this *Tax Guide* to help teachers understand the changes in such critical areas as child care deductions, home office deductions, sick pay exclusions, and investment credit for job-related equipment. Payment must accompany orders for this book, and copies are non-returnable. 88 pp. (1386-7-OF) \$2.50.

What Teachers Say: Class Size. Four cassette tapes recorded from statements of classroom teachers telling of their experiences with overcrowded classes. Views include those of elementary teachers as well as those of a high school science teacher. Adapted from articles which have appeared in *Today's Education*. Overview and Discussion Questions also included. Each tape approximately 7 min. 1977. (2001-4-OF) \$15.

The Seven Cardinal Principles Revisited. Harold G. Shane. Reprinted from *Today's Education* (September/October 1976). Discusses whether or not the original seven cardinal principles of edu-

cation have retained their merit. 16 pp. (1384-0-OF) 75¢.

Quick Reference Library. Reprints of significant articles from *Today's Education*. Invaluable for quick reference on topics frequently discussed in the school setting. One copy of each of the following 12 pamphlets: "Abuse of Power" (John W. Gardner); "Behavioral Objectives" (Ralph Tyler interviewed by June and Harold Shane); "Black Studies" (Thomas Sowell and Ronald Beresford Bailey); "Parent/Teacher Conferences" (Hugh H. Carberry); "Consumer Education" (Ralph Nader); "Foreign Languages" (Mary H. Jackson); "Government" (Norman Cousins); "Innovative Teaching" (Daniel S. Arnold and Audrey Goodloe); "Metrics—Elementary" (Tommie A. West); "Sex Equality—Athletics" (Marjorie Blaufarb); "Values" (Jack R. Fraenkel); "Work Ethic" (Erwin R. Smarr, M.D., and Philip J. Escoll, M.D.). (0900-2-OF) \$5.

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CLASSROOM TIPS

By JANE TYLOR FIELD

Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

These are suggestions made or collected by Mrs. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas on the elementary and secondary levels for possible use in future issues. Mrs. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

It's spring! And what could be more fun than taking a trip, especially if you're very young and glued to a classroom chair. Marge DeWig, fourth grade teacher in Central School, Crystal Lake, Illinois, recommends Bubble Trips for fun, relaxation, and as an aid to creative writing.

She has the children sit down. Then she says, "Now close your eyes and keep them closed. You're going to build a bubble and take a trip in it anywhere you want to go."

The children may take a friend or go it alone. But they must experience the terrain above which they travel. Over a forest? Open a window and smell the pine trees. Ocean below? Feel the salt air on your face. Ducks flying in the clouds? Listen to them honk.

After about five minutes, the children dock their bubbles and immediately write down their sensory experiences. Those who cannot put their thoughts on paper dictate them into a cassette. (Sometimes an aide is able to type up these reports later, and the pupils are thrilled when they see their very own words in print.)

The next step is sharing the stories with the class.

Word pictures: We are always talking about them, usually meaning similes or metaphors or colorful phrases.

Alice G. Brand teaches her students at Conerly Road School, in Somerset, New Jersey, that "What many words

say, some can do." As examples, she puts on the board the following:

Smile BROKEN SAM^B LADE

Each one, of course, is a word picture illustrating itself.

Ms. Brand's purpose is to aid discrimination between words that lack conciseness and vitality and others that convey distinctive images. Such words as *nice*, *bad*, and *interesting* are flat and overused. Others, such as *scrupulous*, *menacing*, and *fascinating* have more life.

Paper, felt-tipped pens, and plenty of room are available to the children. Reference materials are at hand to be consulted in free time between other assignments. Ms. Brand cautions the children that not all terms, by any means, are suitable for this project, but she urges them to use their imaginations. Here are examples of some of her artists' creative efforts:

SUP DENT KICK

Children are not the only ones with imaginations. Kay Denney uses hers to brighten the corner where she is, which happens to be the English Department of Hutchinson (Kansas) High.

Before her students were to begin reading *Romeo and Juliet*, Ms. Denney planned a lecture on Shakespeare and Elizabethan England as an introduction. Who better to deliver the lecture than Queen Elizabeth herself?

A little-theater group loaned Ms. Denney a royal-blue velvet dress of the right period, complete with train and hoopskirt, to which she added many necklaces of costume pearls. She borrowed the high school's homecoming-queen throne, moving it from a closet to her own room after hours.

The next day, after the students had entered the classroom and were seated, Ms. Denney, in full costume and makeup, swept in, stood before them, and announced, "Good morning, class. I am Queen Elizabeth."

While the class listened in astonished silence, Queen Elizabeth talked for 45 minutes about her "family"—mother Anne, siblings Mary and Edward, father Henry VIII—about England and its problems, about London, and of course about her acquaintance William Shakespeare and his Globe Theatre. The dramatic event, an altogether memorable one, would surely have pleased the original Liz.

As for dramatic bulletin boards, Paul Liechty of Southeast Elementary School in Decatur, Indiana, uses airline calendars. Having had generous responses from the airlines to which he has written over a period of years, Mr. Liechty now has a collection of beautiful travel pictures to enliven his classroom. As the posters have arrived, the fourth graders who enjoy them have been happy to write thank you notes to the airlines, thus discovering the "joy" of letter writing and the pleasure of receiving mail. (Some of the airlines thank the children for thanking them.)

During her more than 24 years of teaching, Barbara Conrady of Will Rogers School in Santa Monica, California, has invented countless strategies to aid young (and not so young) children in reading and in grasping math concepts. Most of the strategies are fairly simple and require no elaborate materials. For instance:

Detective Books. The teacher folds small colored papers in half to make books (yellow for multiplication, green for subtraction, purple for division, etc.) and puts an equation on each cover and the answer inside. When an equation is read, a child who recites the correct answer (solves the mystery) gets to keep the book. At the end of the session, the child with the most books is the winner. This is best played by two children taking turns.

Banking Sounds. The "teller" passes out consonant cards face down to five "customers" and then says a word. The customer who has the card with the beginning sound of the word shows

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CLASSROOM TIPS

(Continued)

the card while giving the sound. If the customer is correct, the teller gives him or her a nickel of play money. Eventually, the customer with the most money wins the game.

Capture. In this primary reading game, the teacher places tagboard silhouettes of animals on a table, colored side up. A short story is on the other side of each animal. Each child selects an animal and succeeds in "capturing" it by reading its story. If the child cannot read the story, he or she returns the animal to the table, colored side up. The child who captures the most animals wins.

Space Letters. Now that we are able to land on the moon, children can begin "mail delivery" to and from it. They can pretend to be astronauts writing back to earth. Or, as earth people, they can write to the moon about community problems.

We Sing. Children can display songs they learn in various ways. A Christ-

mas tree might be decorated with red paper bells, each one having on it the words of a carol the class has learned. At other times, each song learned might be written on a paper representation of a musical instrument, until an orchestra is built.

Children can illustrate songs they make up, mimeograph the illustrations, and eventually combine them in a booklet for display during American Education Week.

A Fishing Game. To help foreign children learn English, make paper fish with metal eyes (bottle caps). On one side of each fish, paste a magazine picture or draw an object. On the other side, print a word that matches the picture. After putting the fish in a bowl, give each child in turn a fishing pole—a stick with string from which dangles a magnet. The children may keep the fish they catch if they can identify the pictures in English.

The ditto disease is an epidemic in schools. So says Joyce Gierla, reading specialist at John Adams High in Edison, New Jersey. Many a teacher makes too many copies of dittos. What to do with the extras?

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CLASSROOM TIPS

(Continued)

Rather than throw them away, let them be a valuable source for reinforcing skills. Have a box for each subject and put extra dittos in the proper boxes. Then encourage students who have finished their assigned work to select dittos. They will probably choose those that will reinforce a skill or provide a challenge. For instance, if a classroom houses three levels of junior high language study during the day, the lowest ability group will be challenged by selecting the work sheets of the middle and upper groups. Persons in those groups might be happy to review material at a lower level. Old disassembled workbooks might also be included in this "resource center."

Miss Gierla also suggests sharing dittos with colleagues. Even the most inventive teachers are often delighted with the gift of new ideas.

Children love to learn about themselves and their own bodies. Knowing this, Howie Bergesen of San Remo School, Kings Park, New York, devised an activity that enables his students to analyze their hearing.

Working in pairs, students take turns listening to a tuning fork. During the exercise listeners vary their activities as they listen. For example, they may stand perfectly still with their eyes open or perfectly still with their eyes closed or lie down or perform headstands or do pushups.

The students holding the tuning forks measure in inches the farthest distance at which the listeners can hear the forks. Then they plot the results on a graph and draw their own conclusions from it. For instance, during the first, second, and third activities named above, the average student can hear at 13 inches. But while the student is doing pushups, he or she can't hear the fork until it is only eight inches away.

In other words, sitting quietly is more conducive to learning than squirming around—not exactly a new concept, but if the young discover it for themselves, perhaps they will believe it. □

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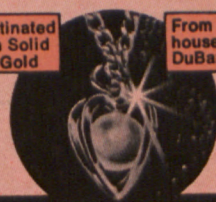


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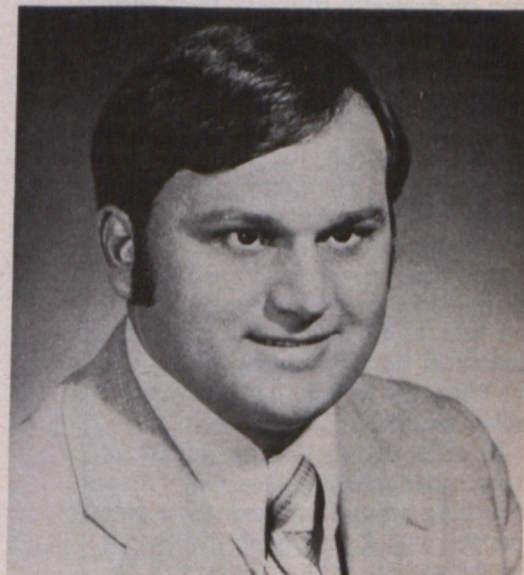
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BOOKS

Human Characteristics and School Learning by Benjamin S. Bloom. McGraw-Hill. 284 pp. \$10.95.

Bloom's book develops the view that most students can learn what schools attempt to teach if they are provided appropriate materials and teaching strategies. I welcome this thesis. For too long schools have been organized on the premise that fast learners can learn complex skills and ideas while slow learners can only be expected to master simple ones. Such tracking systems limit students' self-expectations and their opportunities.

Bloom hypothesizes that most learners could master what schools have to teach if their personal histories were taken into account. He states that each learner begins a particular course, class, grade, or program with a cognitive and affective history that has prepared him or her differently from other learners.

To learn any task, there are certain prerequisite or entry skills. Bloom proposes that if our primary concern is helping children learn in school, then we need to diagnose and treat (educationally) the student's need for specific skills that are prerequisites for a particular set of learning tasks.

Bloom says that the environment of the classroom rather than its physical characteristics is important to school learning. Further, he believes that the teaching procedures and not the teacher's characteristics (age, sex, etc.) are central to student success.

To apply Bloom's theory, teachers need to acquire more extensive diagnostic and prescriptive skills than most teacher education programs presently teach. Also, it is most important that teachers have the counsel and expertise of experienced teachers who value Bloom's theory.

I recommend that classroom teachers read Bloom's work. During the years I taught children, I did not find any poor learners. I only discovered my own inadequacy to combine the correct material and procedures that could allow each student to succeed.

Bloom's theory is a challenge to

professional teachers and educators. As he says, "If humans are born equal or can become equal with regard to learning, then the home and the school have responsibilities far greater than they have assumed in the past. If equality of learning is possible, then the selective function of schools [tracking of students] must be largely abandoned in favor of the developmental functions which schools must increasingly serve."

Reviewed by Jane Stallings, former teacher and present manager of classroom process studies, Stanford Research Institute, Menlo Park, California.

On Teaching by Herbert Kohl. Schocken Books. 185 pp. \$7.95.

On Teaching is a disappointment. Herbert Kohl's main theme, that concern for students' lives is the most important part of teaching, is worthy, and he offers many valuable specific suggestions, but bitterness colors everything he writes and makes his ideas suspect to anyone who knows about successful public schools.

This is unfortunate because American education needs some radical changes, and Kohl's ideas are exciting. His basic message is that "infiltrating and attempting to change public schools" is the way to become involved as a teacher.

For Kohl, every school, before he arrives, is staffed by the enemy. For him, being a good student in public schools "requires the suppression of good sense, the abandonment of initiative, the loss of intuition, the impoverishment of humor, the death of sensibility." This description is set forth as the pattern of "good" students everywhere—as though all public schools at all levels are failing.

Still, the new teacher, forewarned that this is a biased book, can learn from *On Teaching*, because Kohl gives specific examples of how he has taught classes and how he has coped with poor administrators and unenlightened teachers to effect changes in schools where he has taught. Kohl is a dedicated teacher, and his examples give teachers ideas for their own classrooms. For example, his detailed analysis of how he used the circus as a theme is a model of original thinking and plain hard work that results in good education by anyone's standards.

Kohl also gives sound advice about school politics and how a new teacher can change a school around. Among other things, he points out that the principal's secretary is usually the most knowledgeable figure in the school, so that an early step in any strategy is to work with her and win her sympathies for future changes.

A minor complaint is that *On Teaching* is not always grammatical—subjects and verbs don't always agree, for example.

Kohl thus fails in ways both large and small, but for a reader able to accept Kohl's bias, the book offers many challenging ideas.

Reviewed by John M. Gray, chairman, English Department, Nauset Regional High School; North Eastham, Massachusetts.

Avoiding Teacher Malpractice: A Practical Legal Handbook for the Teaching Professional by Renard Strickland, Janet Frasier Phillips, and William R. Phillips. Hawthorn. 223 pp. \$8.95.

The authors—all lawyers and two of them, former teachers—have compiled a practical reference source that can help educators avoid lawsuits. It is timely in light of recent U.S. Supreme Court decisions which challenge precedents that have been established over the years to protect the rights of educators.

The book gives many helpful examples of educators' experiences in employment situations.

Of special interest, too, are the guidelines at the end of each chapter; a checklist for educators to use in protecting their employment rights; and a programmed text on the knowledge, tools, and skills educators need for avoiding lawsuits. The bibliography lists some very useful reference sources.

Educators should have access to this valuable handbook for survival in the legal jungle.

Reviewed by LaMar Haynes, attorney, NEA Teacher Rights.

Undoing Sex Stereotypes: Research and Resources for Educators by Marcia Guttentag and Helen Bray. McGraw-Hill. 334 pp. \$8.95; paperback, \$5.95.

The authors describe a six-week project aimed at "undoing sex stereo-

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Attitudes and Reading

J. Estill Alexander and Ronald C. Filler. Helps teachers identify attitudes related to reading, provides suggestions for assessing attitudes, and suggests behaviors and instructional strategies which may help students form more positive attitudes toward reading. 1976, 80 pp. (A351-00222) \$3.50

Improving Reading in Science

Judith Thelen. Suggests ways to teach simultaneously science content and the reading and reasoning processes by which that content is learned. 1976, 60 pp. (A351-00217) \$3.50

Literacy for America's Spanish Speaking Children

Eleanor W. Thonis. Considers the backgrounds of Spanish speaking pupils in relation to their success in reading, explores ways to help Spanish speaking pupils achieve their potential in reading, and reviews developmental reading within the framework of first and second language literacy. 1976, 78 pp. (A351-00221) \$3.50

Reading and the Bilingual Child

Doris C. Ching. Provides practical ideas for teachers of bilingual and bidialectal students, including the development of motivation and self-concept, auditory, discrimination, vocabulary concepts, and oral language. 1976, 48 pp. (A351-00220) \$3.00

Reading in the Middle School

Edited by Gerald G. Duffy. Focuses on organizational problems, describes reading content and instructional strategies, and predicts future of middle school reading. 1974, 212 pp. (A351-00118) \$6.50

Syntax and Readability

John Dawkins. Clarifies some grammatical processes underlying the complex structures of English and raises questions about reading difficulties related to syntactic complexity. 1975, 48 pp. (A351-00931) \$3.00

Teaching Reading as Concept Development: Emphasis on Affective Thinking

George H. Henry. Conceives of reading as a number of logical processes instead of a list of discrete reading skills and provides practical assistance at every level to put the cognitive to work for the affective. 1974, 120 pp. (A351-00852) \$5.00

Teaching Reading and Mathematics

Richard Earle. Contains specific suggestions as to how mathematics teachers in the middle and upper grades can teach simultaneously the content of mathematics and the process of reading. 1976, 95 pp. (A351-00219) \$4.50

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BOOKS (Continued)

types." The project involved kindergarten, fifth grade, and ninth grade boys and girls in three school districts. The children were tested at the beginning and end of the project.

The book describes the evaluative results of the study and draws conclusions. It does not describe the research itself in such a way that it can be replicated, and the reporting of results is weak. The intervention period was too short to be conclusive.

The book contains separate chapters on objectives and curriculums for kindergarten, intermediate, and junior high school classes. A lengthy chapter of collected readings and a bibliography of materials provide additional resources for teachers.

The activities may be of interest to educators implementing nonsexist educational programs in their classrooms. The resource material and curriculum ideas may be helpful to middle and junior high school teachers searching for ideas and materials to use. Many of the lesson plans and activities can be used throughout the school year and may stimulate more creative ideas for lessons.

Reviewed by Tish Henslee, associate professor of elementary and early childhood education, University of Arkansas at Little Rock.

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AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

The following 16mm sound/color films are recommended by William J. Cuttill (with the assistance of Beverly Teach), Indiana University Audio-Visual Center, as representative of those available for use in helping students understand that self-doubt and anxiety are natural and universal. Further information about these films can be obtained from the producers/distributors indicated by the numbers in parentheses.

Everyone Rides the Carousel. Three parts: 25 min., 23 min., 30 min. Portrays Erik Erikson's eight stages of social development with the anxieties and stimulations of each. Grades 7-12. (5)

I Am Me . . . And I Want To Be. 13 min. Emphasizes the differences in several children to develop children's awareness of themselves and of the need for diversity in society. Grades 1-3. (6)

Parenting: Growing with Children. 23 min. Studies how the interpersonal relationships of four families are strengthened or weakened by children and the family's life-style. Grades 6-12. (2)

Robin . . . A Runaway. 31 min. Examines the lack of communication at home that caused a 14-year-old girl to run away and offers realistic advice. Grades 5-12. (2)

Teenagers Talk: Getting Through Adolescence. 12 min. Identifies, with a touch of humor, many problems, such as weight, physical size, and emotions, that are associated with puberty and adolescence. Grades 5-10. (1)

The New Tenant. 30 min. Adapts Eugene Ionesco's play which looks beyond the surface to the deeper meaning or meaninglessness of life. Grades 8-12. (3)

With a Little Help. 13 min. Focuses on the feeling of loneliness to show effects failure and success can have on a person's emotional development during preadolescence. Grades 1-6. (4)

Producers or distributors: (1) BFA Educational Media, 2211 Michigan Ave., Santa Monica, CA 90406. (2) Filmfair Communications, 10900 Ventura Blvd., P.O. Box 1728, Studio City, CA 91604. (3) EBEC, 425 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago 60611. (4) McDonald Crain Media, P.O. Box 3371, Glendale, CA 91201. (5) Pyramid Films, P.O. Box 1048, Santa Monica, CA 90406. (6) Sandler Instructional Films, 1001 N. Poinsettia Pl., Los Angeles 90046. □

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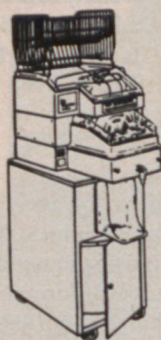
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Art—Checklist of 16mm Films. Describes films in architecture, sculpture, painting (techniques, appreciation, history), art fundamentals, crafts, and the art of film animation. 1976. 41 pp. Free. Intl. Film Bureau Inc., 332 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago 60604.

Positive Images. A guide to more than 400 films, videotapes, slide shows, and filmstrips that actively challenge sex-role stereotypes. Designates age level and provides ordering information. Illustrated and indexed by subject. 1976. 168 pp. \$5.50. Booklegger Press, 555 29th St., San Francisco 94131.

Scrap: The Supernatural Resource. A 16mm color/sound film that provides a journey through the modern scrap-processing industry. Emphasizes conservation of irreplaceable natural resources and environmental savings. 1976. 28½ min. Free on loan. Modern Talking Picture Service, 2323 New Hyde Park Rd., New Hyde Park, NY 11040.

Careers

Career Education Pamphlets. Lists free and inexpensive sources of material on 217 career fields. 1976. 65 pp. \$3.95. Dale E. Shaffer, Library Consultant, 437 Jennings Ave., Salem, OH 44460.

Careers in Music. Reviews career opportunities in music today. Includes five sections that cover jobs in performing, business, education, and the recording industry and allied fields. 1976. 132 pp. \$1. American Music Conference, 150 E. Huron St., Chicago 60611.

The McGraw-Hill Guide to Careers in Book Publishing. An aid to career counseling, guidance, and placement that defines aspects of book publishing—trade, educational, professional, and reference—and describes work in the areas of editing, graphic design, production, and marketing. 1976. 19 pp. \$1. McGraw-Hill Book Co. Distribution Center, Hightstown, NJ 08520.

Exceptional Students

Aids and Appliances for the Blind

and Visually Impaired. Lists more than 300 specialized aids, appliances, and tools adapted to meet the needs of persons who are blind or have severely limited vision. Available in print, braille, and disc editions. 1976. Free. American Foundation for the Blind, Aids and Appliances Division, 15 W. 16th St., New York 10011.

Promising Practices: Teaching the Disadvantaged Gifted. Explores new teaching and learning styles, accentuating cultural strengths and different human values in special situations. 1975. 57 pp. \$2.70. Ventura County Supt. of Schools, County Office Bldg., Ventura, CA 93001, attn: Leadership Training Institute Publications.

Teacher Idea Exchange: A Potpourri of Helpful Hints. More than 100 classroom tips gleaned from CEC's magazine, *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 1976. \$5. Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Assn. Dr., Reston, VA 22091.

Financial Aid

How To Obtain Money for College. A guide to the sources of financial aid for education—for colleges and universities, business and secretarial schools, vocational and technical schools, hospital schools of nursing, and specialty schools. Includes discussions on college selection and cost estimates. 1976. 176 pp. \$5. Arco Publishing Co., 219 Park Ave., S., New York 10003.

Health and Recreation

Beautiful Junk. Ideas for creating free and inexpensive play equipment. Includes suggestions for locating materials. 1975. 12 pp. 45¢. Consumer Information Center, Dept. 5E, Pueblo, CO 81009.

Books that Help Children Deal with a Hospital Experience. Summarizes and rates the books and tells what to look for in selecting similar books. 1974. 22 pp. 50¢. Consumer Information Center, Dept. 6E, Pueblo, CO 81009.

Contemporary Nutrition. A monthly newsletter that discusses topics on diet

and nutrition. 2 pp. Free. General Mills, Inc., P.O. Box 1113, Minneapolis, MN 55440.

Marijuana: Current Perspectives. A guide for parents, students, public officials, and the general public. Clarifies what is now medically known about marijuana, what the psychological impact of its use is, and what the legal and social issues are. 1976. 28 pp. 50¢. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 381 Park Ave. South, New York 10016.

11 Million Teenagers—What Can Be Done About the Epidemic of Adolescent Pregnancies in the United States. Gives basic facts about adolescent sexuality and describes what remains to be done to prevent unwanted adolescent pregnancy and childbearing and to mitigate their consequences. Includes illustrations and charts. 1976. 64 pp. \$2.50. (Make checks payable to Planned Parenthood Federation of America.) The Alan Guttmacher Institute, 515 Madison Ave., New York 10022.

The New Games Book—Play Hard, Play Fair, Nobody Hurt. Games—some ancient but new because of the way they are played—for everyone, regardless of age, sex, or size, who wants to play. Illustrated. 1976. 200 pp. \$4.95. The New Games Foundation, P.O. Box 7901, San Francisco 94111.

Preparing for Change. Helping children cope with such changes as starting school, moving, and death of a relative. 1974. 24 pp. 60¢. Consumer Information Center, Dept. 12E, Pueblo, CO 81009.

The VD Book for People Who Care About Themselves and Others. An official publication of the United States Alliance for the Eradication of Venereal Disease. 1976. 145 pp. \$1.95. Special Sales Dept., Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 383 Madison Ave., New York 10017.

Language Arts

Books for You. No. 29846. A listing

of more than 2,700 titles with descriptive annotations of books for senior high students. Organized by topic. 1976. Revised edition. 496 pp. \$2.95 (\$2.25 to Council members). Natl. Council of Teachers of English, Order Dept., 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801.

Catalog of Plays. Briefly describes more than 75 plays—some old, some new, most one-act—that are suitable for classroom performances, assembly programs, competitions, drama clubs. Includes a section on low-budget costume construction and a make-up primer. 1976. 32 pp. Free. Order from I.E. Clark, Publisher, P.O. Box 246, Schulenburg, TX 78956.

Music

The Plugged-In Era. Gives the history of electronic music and describes several programs that use electronic instruments in the classroom. 1976. 12 pp. Single copy free. American Music Conference, 150 E. Huron St., Chicago 60611.

Sing, Children, Sing. A UNICEF book containing songs (with music), dances, singing games from 34 countries, and pictures of children from each country. 1975. \$3.50. UNICEF, 331 E. 38 St., New York 10016. ☐

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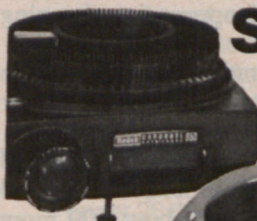
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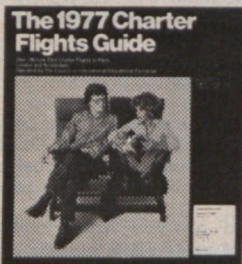
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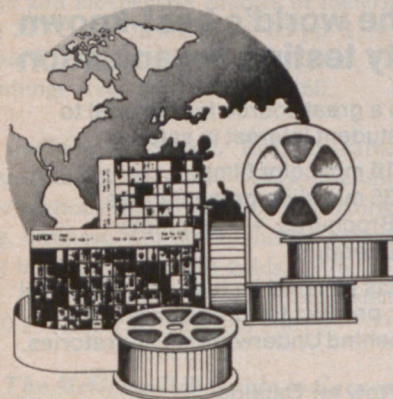


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MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

Evaluating Nonprint Media

This feature is prepared by P. Kenneth Komoski, executive director, EPIE (Educational Products Information Exchange) Institute. For further information about materials and equipment, write to EPIE Institute, 475 Riverside Drive, New York 10027.

"Of course teachers are right in expecting us to provide them with media that are appropriate for their students' needs—but how can we do this if teachers don't help us evaluate what's appropriate and what isn't?"

That's the lament that we at EPIE hear more and more these days from media directors. It speaks to a growing problem about the use of nonprint media in today's classrooms.

Somehow teachers and media people need to get together to solve this problem before it gets totally out of hand and neither party is able to cope. If neither can cope, the ultimate losers will, of course, be learners who will be stuck with inappropriate learning materials.

Here are some dimensions of the problem that teachers should know about.

- For every nonprint instructional item that was on the school market 10 years ago, there are about 100 more today. (That's right, there are now more than 100 times as many things to use—and to evaluate—as there were when most of today's teachers started teaching.)

- Of the perennial 1 percent of school budgets spent for all instructional materials, the proportion allocated for the purchase of nonprint materials is much larger now than it was 10 years ago. Consequently, more nonprint media are being purchased and finding their way into classrooms. (Some 13,000 teachers who have participated in EPIE's first National Survey and Assessment of Instructional Materials tell us they are using nonprint materials during about 30 percent of all instructional time.)

- The amount of time today's smaller school staffs are devoting to the

evaluation of nonprint media is essentially the same as it was 10 years ago. This means that fewer people are evaluating about 100 times as many things as they did 10 years ago in the same amount of time.

- Because of the increase in availability, purchase, and use of nonprint media in classrooms and the relative decrease in the time available to evaluate these materials, much of the money schools are spending on nonprint media is wasted on inappropriate materials. Many of these materials are used once and then never taken off the shelf again or are used again only because the teacher doesn't know that there is a more appropriate alternative. Both of these situations might be eliminated if teachers and media people could create a system that would enable all teachers to share their experiences and findings about specific nonprint materials.

What can teachers do to help solve the media evaluation problem? One thing they might do is share the following two suggestions with their school's media person and their fellow teachers. These suggestions are prompted by our observations of the few schools we've seen where teacher-media specialist cooperation on the evaluation problem seems to be working.

- The evaluation form must be easy to fill out and must not take much time to complete.

- Teachers must see that the evaluation effort is a direct benefit to them (that it will give them easy access to what other teachers and learners feel about the value of material they are considering using with their students).

Here's an account of how one school put these suggestions into practice:

We developed a simple form that we send out with every film. We file these evaluation cards with the order card for the film. Then the teachers can see, when the department begins the reordering process, what they thought of a particular title at the time they showed it. We get responses on about 80 percent of the titles within a

week's time. Seeing those teacher/student comments makes the system worthwhile.

The system described above is keyed only to a given group of teachers' reordering a film; another possibility is to file evaluation cards from all teachers in a pocket attached to the material, so that teachers can read through them before previewing. Or cards can be filed in a central, easily accessible file, so teachers can consult them before ordering a material. This is probably the most useful system, since it would help teachers screen out materials inappropriate for their students. But whatever the system, material evaluations serve another purpose: They provide teachers with a solid base for deciding whether the material will really meet their needs.

Below is a sample evaluation form, prepared by EPIE; it could, of course, be modified to meet any school's needs.

Teacher/Media Evaluation Card

Teacher _____

Course Taught & Grade _____

Material Subject _____

Appropriate Grade Level _____

Please rate this material from 1 (lowest rating) to 5 (highest rating) in the box next to each of the following:

RATING

- Goals and objectives clearly stated or implied. ☐
- Content directly relates to goals and objectives. ☐
- Teaching guide (if any) helps achieve objectives. ☐
- Evaluation (if any) tests for content/skills presented. ☐
- Material is accurate, objective, and current. ☐
- Material portrays women and minorities fairly. ☐
- Students seem to comprehend information presented. ☐
- Students appear to respond with interest. ☐
- I would recommend this material to others. ☐

Please use the reverse side for recording any relevant student comments that you think would help another teacher to decide about how useful this material would be for learners. Thank you.

We at EPIE would be interested in hearing from any school that decides to use this evaluation form or a version of it. Perhaps we can even help schools that want to share findings on nonprint media. Maybe teachers, media specialists, and EPIE can all work together to solve the growing problem of nonprint media evaluation and bring better instruction to learners. ☐

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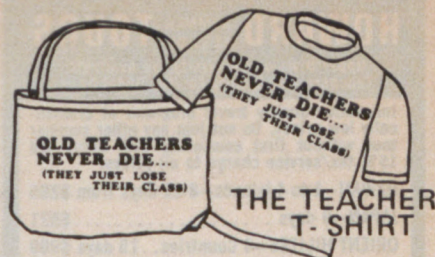
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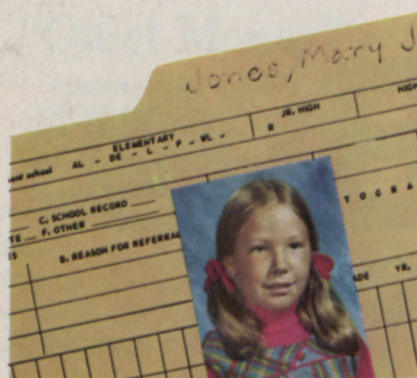
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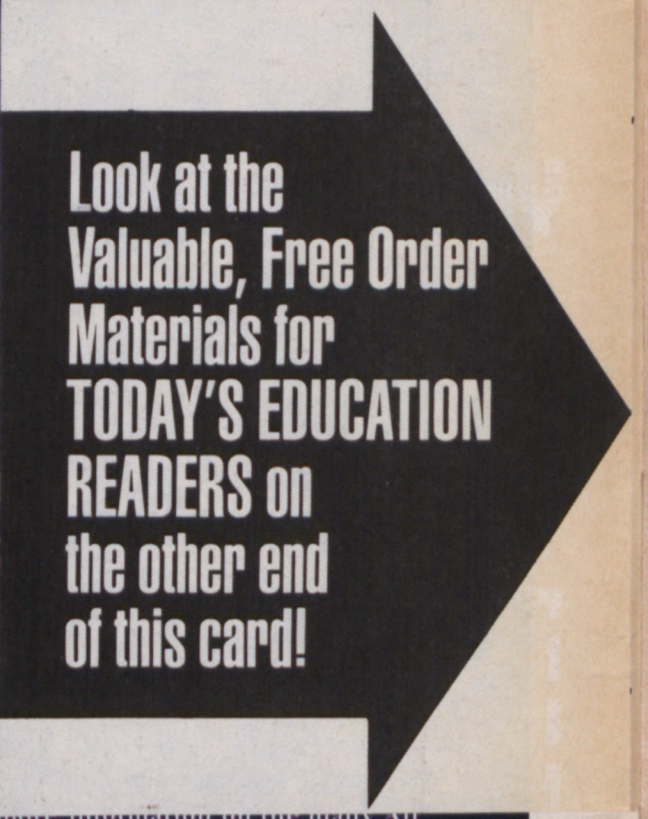
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